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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PERCEPTIONS OF EFFECTIVENESS AND PRINCIPALS' JOB SATISFACTION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

BY

NEIL A. JOHNSON

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA
SPRING 1988

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Perceptions of Effectiveness and Principals' Job Satisfaction in Elementary Schools" submitted by Neil A. Johnson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined job satisfaction, organizational effectiveness and leadership effectiveness in elementary schools.

Questionnaires, developed from the literature and 14 exploratory interviews, were distributed to a 20% random sample of 131 elementary school principals in Alberta and to 391 teachers and 9 area superintendents in Edmonton; response rates were 86%, 67% and 100%. Results of an independent survey of parents and students were obtained for comparison. Questionnaire data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Ten principals were interviewed to acquire detailed information and identify constraints on effectiveness. Qualitative techniques were used to analyze verbal responses.

Principals expressed overall satisfaction with their work. The most satisfying facets were working relationships with teachers and students: least satisfying was principals' hours of work. The best predictors of overall job satisfaction were the effect of the work on principals' personal lives, and the community standing of principals. Sense of accomplishment, a more obscure concept, was also closely associated with job satisfaction. Working relationships with teachers were perceived to be most important for principals' overall satisfaction.

Principals tended to view their schools as effective, although appraisals varied. Schools were most effective in maintaining appropriate climates and least effective in maximizing non-parent community satisfaction. The best predictors were school climate and maximizing parental satisfaction. The most important effectiveness criteria were school climate and leadership. Interview responses highlighted individual perspectives and revealed constraints upon effectiveness. Teachers and area superintendents were less positive about the effectiveness of schools.

The majority of principals regarded themselves as effective leaders; they were most effective in exercising exemplary behaviour and least effective in enlisting non-parent community support. Significant predictors included decision making and identifying community expectations. The most important criteria concerned staff, although several other important criteria were identified. Principals perceived many constraints on their effectiveness. Area superintendents' perceptions of principals' effectiveness were less favourable.

Job satisfaction exhibited no systematic relationship with effectiveness, but the effectiveness constructs were strongly correlated.

The findings challenge current views of "effective schools" and a preoccupation with "instructional leadership." Researchers need to study satisfaction and effectiveness more comprehensively, and to examine effectiveness paradoxes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was conducted with considerable assistance and support from many people. The ideas of the principals, teachers and area superintendents who took time to respond to questionnaires and engage in interviews were, of course, vital, as was the cooperation of Mr. B. McIntosh, Mr. S. Van der Valk and other administrators in the Edmonton Public and Separate School Districts.

Dr. E. A. Holdaway directed my attention to the topics of this study. Thereafter he oversaw the study to its completion, encouraging me along the way and guiding me toward a range of related academic pursuits. Dr. R. G. McIntosh, Dr. J. Fris (Supervisory Committee members), Dr. W. H. Worth, Professor C. R. Hinings and Dr. W. K. Hoy (External Examiner) also made helpful comments at various stages of the research. Early methodological suggestions came from Dr. E. W. Ratsoy. Mrs. C. Prokop contributed invaluable statistical assistance.

Throughout my program of studies, the University of Alberta provided significant experience and financial assistance in the form of an internship to the President and Vice-President (Academic), a Dissertation Fellowship, an Andrew Stewart Graduate Prize, and Graduate Research and Teaching Assistantships.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Effectiveness is a universal concern among organizational administrators. In the context of schools, improvement of student learning and organizational performance is a prime interest for superintendents and principals; the pursuit of effectiveness engages their interest and effort and, if improvement is observed, it may afford them feelings of satisfaction. Yet dimensions and criteria for gauging the quality of performance in schools remain problematic. Indeed, preoccupied with the production of concise, convenient checklists of school effectiveness variables, many educational researchers seem to have overlooked dimensions of effective performance highlighted by writers in other disciplines. A need exists for more comprehensive mapping of the criteria of school effectiveness, for instruments to diagnose organizational effectiveness in expansive terms, and for identification of factors which may inhibit the pursuit of effective performance.

Organizational leaders are portrayed in the literature as vital contributors to organizational effectiveness. More specifically, studies of school effectiveness have revealed that principals may be critical for school success and improvement. Yet surprisingly little is known about effective behaviours of principals and constraints upon their contribution to the overall effectiveness of schools. Thus there remains a similar need to consider features of the principalship which may enhance the effectiveness of incumbents and thereby perhaps also the effectiveness of schools for which they are responsible.

Among the frequently proposed dimensions of school effectiveness is the job satisfaction of principals and teachers. At one time job satisfaction was studied mainly in the hope that it would enlighten the study of organizational effectiveness. Now researchers and theorists acknowledge the difficulty of establishing its contribution to and importance for organizational performance, and the causality of any connection. Moreover, little attention has been paid to this relationship in educational settings--particularly in connection with administrative personnel. It seems reasonable, therefore, to question whether principals, as school leaders, might derive satisfaction from recognition of their own effectiveness and the effectiveness of their organizations and/or whether their satisfaction may contribute to improved performance. To date, this fundamental issue has remained a matter mostly for conjecture and assumption.

Despite the lack of a known satisfaction-performance connection in schools, research has shown at least that principals and teachers, like other workers, derive satisfaction from many other aspects of their work. There is also general acceptance of intrinsic merit in studying satisfaction because of its potential for enhancing workers' personal and work lives. Hence, job satisfaction ought to be investigated to learn how the professional tasks of school administration and teaching might bring meaning to the lives of principals, teachers, students and others associated with schools. In spite of this need, much about principals' job satisfaction remains unknown, and research about this aspect of school life can best be described as sporadic. One noteworthy illustration of the problem is the concept of sense of accomplishment, which has been revealed as important for satisfaction in many organizational situations; it has emerged as a critical aspect of satisfaction for principals and it appears to be associated with effectiveness in schools, yet its nature has not yet been explored in any concerted and systematic manner in educational organizations.

This is not to say that research about principals' job satisfaction and school effectiveness has not been pursued to some good effect. Gunn and Holdaway (1986), for example, recently reported on an investigation of the relationships between a limited selection of school effectiveness dimensions and some aspects of principals' work satisfaction, effectiveness and influence. That research, however, drew only upon principals' own perceptions of effectiveness, it was confined to the realm of senior high schools and, as an exploratory study with a new research instrument, it precluded direct comparison of findings with those from previous studies. These limitations represent important and pervasive constraints on current knowledge about life in educational organizations. As research about perceptions and organizational effectiveness has shown, investigations of school effectiveness need to accommodate the perceptions of a variety of interest groups in school affairs. Studies have also indicated that the attitudes and work of school administrators and staff members in elementary, junior high and senior high schools differ markedly in some respects; and a common shortcoming of educational research seems to be the piecemeal manner in which research questions are framed and methodological procedures are chosen and employed.

If school effectiveness is to be improved, there must be further investigation of the criteria of high quality performance; these criteria may be associated with the effectiveness and job satisfaction of school principals. If job satisfaction is to be promoted--whether or not it contributes to greater school effectiveness--its nature and associated variables in different work settings must be explored. If knowledge of each of these phenomena is to progress in any meaningful and cumulative way, inquiries will need to draw upon the views of multiple constituencies and to proceed through systematic investigation and comparison of attitudes from personnel at different school levels.

The study reported upon here examined each of the foregoing aspects of educational administration and practice in the context of elementary schools in Alberta.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to investigate relationships among the constructs of job satisfaction, organizational effectiveness and effectiveness of leaders. More specifically, the researcher had the following intents for the study: (a) to examine the sources, extent and nature of, and inhibiting influences on, overall and job facet satisfaction of elementary school principals in Alberta; (b) to investigate and compare perceptions of the criteria and attainment of, and constraints upon, effectiveness in elementary schools in Alberta; (c) to identify and compare perceptions of effectiveness criteria, levels of effectiveness and inhibiting influences on effectiveness, in connection with the leadership role of Alberta's elementary school principals; and (d) to explore possible relationships among variables associated with school effectiveness, effectiveness of principals and the job satisfaction of principals in elementary schools in Alberta. These purposes led to the formulation of the research problems that are stated below.

Research Problems

The central research question for this study was, *What relationships exist among perceptions of school effectiveness, the effectiveness of principals and the job satisfaction of principals in elementary schools?* To obtain information about this and related questions arising from a review of pertinent literature (Chapter 2), perceptions were sought from a range of personnel associated with elementary schools in Alberta. Research Questions 1-23 were approached through investigation of the perceptions of elementary school principals. To address Research Questions 24-28, responses were sought also from area superintendents and teachers in some of those elementary schools; and comparisons were made with findings from an independent study with students and parents.

Job Satisfaction of Principals

1. To what extent do principals experience overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction?
2. To what extent do principals experience job satisfaction or dissatisfaction on individual job facets?
3. What job facets best predict overall job satisfaction of principals?
4. What is the nature of "sense of accomplishment" for principals and how does it

relate to their overall job satisfaction?

5. What relationships exist between overall job satisfaction of principals and selected personal and organizational variables?

6. What job facets are most important for the overall job satisfaction of principals?

7. To what extent is the strength of principals' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with specific job facets directly associated with the importance of those facets? (In other words, do the findings support the view that facet satisfaction is "self-weighted" for importance?)

Effectiveness of Schools

8. To what extent are schools effective overall?

9. To what extent are schools effective on individual criteria?

10. What criteria best predict the overall effectiveness of schools?

11. What relationships exist between overall effectiveness of schools and selected personal and organizational variables?

12. What are the most important criteria for assessing the effectiveness of schools?

13. What factors constrain the effectiveness of schools?

Effectiveness of Principals

14. To what extent are principals effective overall?

15. To what extent are principals effective on individual criteria?

16. What criteria best predict the overall effectiveness of principals?

17. What relationships exist between overall effectiveness of principals and selected personal and organizational variables?

18. What are the most important criteria for assessing the effectiveness of principals?

19. What factors constrain the effectiveness of principals?

Relationships Among the Constructs

20. To what extent are overall job satisfaction of principals, overall effectiveness of schools and overall effectiveness of principals related?

21. In what ways are the job satisfaction of principals and school effectiveness related?

22. In what ways are the job satisfaction of principals and the effectiveness of principals related?

23. In what ways are the effectiveness of schools and the effectiveness of principals related?

Comparisons of Constituencies' Perceptions of Effectiveness

24. To what extent are principals' perceptions of school effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers, area superintendents, students and parents?

25. To what extent are principals' perceptions of the importance of various criteria for assessing school effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers and area superintendents?

26. To what extent are principals' perceptions of the constraints on school effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers and area superintendents?

27. To what extent are principals' perceptions of their effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers, area superintendents, students and parents?

28. To what extent are principals' perceptions of the importance of various criteria for assessing principals' effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of area superintendents?

Owing to the exploratory nature of some aspects of the study, a lack of research on the work lives of principals and the uncertainty of interrelationships among many of the variables, research hypotheses were deemed to be inappropriate for this investigation.

Significance of the Study for Research and Practice

There can be little doubt about the legitimacy and importance of studying job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness. Although early research on job satisfaction was founded on the debatable premise that satisfaction affects work performance, there are at least three reasons that have prompted and justified a continuing research interest in this dimension of organizational life. First, job satisfaction seems to be related to absenteeism and turnover and, according to Davis (1977, p. 73), low job satisfaction appears to be "one of the surest signs of deteriorating conditions in an organization." Knowledge of this construct may therefore help in minimizing those undesirable organizational outcomes. Second, as Holdaway (1978a) indicated, job satisfaction is now valued as a desirable "organizational outcome" rather than merely as a "determinant"; Floyd (1985) concurred with this view. As Lawler (1973, p. 63) explained, "What happens to people during the work day has profound effects both on the individual's life and on the society as a whole, and thus these events cannot be ignored if the quality of life in a society is to be high." Locke (1976, p. 1328) also defended the study of job satisfaction as "an end in itself, since happiness, after all, is the goal of life," and Gross and Etzioni (1985, p. 52) remarked that,

> Even if future studies should show that people's feelings about their work have little effect on productivity, we might still wish to improve those feelings for humane reasons. A happy worker may not produce more, but considerations of ethics and justice would nonetheless argue for increasing the sum of human happiness.

The pursuit of theoretical understanding of job satisfaction assumes a pervasive importance when it is considered in the wider context of modern organizational realities and problems. As Fraser (1983) observed, there is now a widespread belief that industrialization and other changes in the work environment have prejudiced the quality of work life for many workers. He drew attention to the depersonalization and frustration of relegating humans to tenders of machines, to the reduced stimulation it has brought to jobs despite increasing levels of education, to increasing stress in jobs that continue to be challenging, and to technological advancement with its detrimental effects on personal involvement and contact, initiative, aspirations and feelings of security and control. Similarly, in an educational context, we might think of the expanding influence of computer technology in the classroom and the increasing job pressure on administrators and teachers as a result of persistent community criticism and calls for external accountability. These problems have been associated with concerns about a possible decline in workers' feelings of job satisfaction and overall quality of work and personal lives, and they highlight a third reason to make sense of the job satisfaction construct as it relates to workers across the organizational spectrum.

Exploration and appraisal of organizational effectiveness are of obvious importance for theory, research and the administration of schools. Support for this assertion derives from the emergence of an extensive and rapidly growing literature about school effectiveness, an inconclusive but expansive body of literature on organizational effectiveness, a current focus on effectiveness in national and international meetings of educational researchers, and a proliferation of school improvement seminars and publications provided by and for practitioners.

With regard to theory and research, Cameron (1986a, p. 540) asserted that

> the construct of organizational effectiveness is central to the organizational sciences and cannot be ignored in theory and research. . . . effectiveness is inherently tied to all *theory* on organizations. *Empirically,* effectiveness is generally the ultimate dependent variable in research on organizations.

Research is particularly necessary both because of the continually changing views of effectiveness research and on account of presently inadequate knowledge of the construct. Cameron and Whetten (1983a, p. 261), for example, have admitted that "there is a state of confusion surrounding the literature on organizational effectiveness," a lack of consensus about definitions and theories, and a "fragmentary" and "noncumulative" aspect to the research. School effectiveness has also attracted criticism for fundamental methodological and conceptual deficiencies, and much of it seems to be atheoretical. Consequently, the handy "recipes" for educational success that have been established may be of questionable value for guiding further inquiry and informing educational practice.

Identification and testing of potential effectiveness criteria in schools and other organizations could also have important benefits for practitioners. First, better understanding should enhance the quality of performance appraisal, permitting school administrators, teachers, students, governmental policy makers, parents and other interested parties to be advised about the extent/of school achievement; this would enable them to make informed judgements about the need for educational reform. Second, competent school administrators necessarily appraise the progress of their organizations and the effects of innovations, because school-wide effectiveness is their immediate responsibility. Appropriate theoretical models and diagnostic tools for assessing effectiveness could equip principals and central administrators to gauge performance accurately in the relevant domains and, thus, adapt their schools for greater effectiveness.

Beyond the independent importance of these two areas of study, exploration of the connection between effectiveness and satisfaction has some support in both literatures. For example, writing in a job satisfaction context, Brayfield and Crockett's (1970, p. 81) early and influential expression of scepticism about a relationship between effectiveness and satisfaction was tempered by their admission that "It seems possible . . . that conditions conducive to job satisfaction will have an effect on the . . . quality of job performance, and the harmony of labor-management relations. Such potential correlates, among others, merit exploration." Porter and Lawler (1975, p. 216) and others have been more positive in asserting the presence of "a low but consistent *association*," although not necessarily a causal one, between satisfaction and performance. Porter and Lawler further argued that, most likely, satisfaction is caused by performance; hence, accurate appraisal of job satisfaction within an organization may assist in diagnosing levels and areas of employee effectiveness. As the review of literature will also show, not only has research on the satisfaction-performance connection been inconclusive and in need of further attention, but little interest has been expressed in this matter in educational settings--particularly with regard to the satisfaction of administrators. This remains a potentially fruitful and as yet largely untraversed path of inquiry.

As a single piece of research, then, this study holds implications for theory and research and substantial and direct importance for educational practice. With regard to theory, the study examined a comprehensive array of school effectiveness variables and thereby contributed to knowledge about the characteristics of high quality performance in schools at the elementary level. It also advanced understanding of dimensions of job satisfaction for elementary school principals. Finally, beyond the importance of exploring satisfaction and effectiveness as distinct fields of inquiry, and in spite of the uncertainty of their association in business and other organizational contexts, this investigation has provided further evidence about the satisfaction-performance link through its examination of relationships between school effectiveness, effectiveness of principals and job satisfaction of principals. By investigating connections and possible mediating influences, attention has been given to further clarifying the boundaries of the theoretical constructs of job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness.

The instruments developed and refined for use in this study and the resultant findings may also contribute to future research. They should facilitate ongoing, comparative investigation of effectiveness criteria and constraints, sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and other aspects of the work lives and attitudes of school principals and other administrators and educators. The multi-stage, multi-constituency aspect of this study may also serve as a methodological starting point for future researchers who intend to explore, confirm and extend knowledge about various aspects of work in school settings. By highlighting the importance of and procedures for investigating and comparing the perceptions of various educational interests, this study may have relevance for future educational research in domains other than satisfaction and effectiveness.

This study has theoretical and further methodological implications through its place in a systematic program of inquiry (see Johnson, 1987). In one respect it replicated--in an elementary school setting--most of Gunn's (1984) earlier research in senior high schools in Alberta, and it was conducted in conjunction with an equivalent study in junior high schools (Sroypan, forthcoming). In some respects it produced evidence that corroborated the findings in schools at higher levels and so identified parallels across school levels. In other respects it revealed characteristics of work life that, in this province at least, seem to be distinctive to elementary schools. By building upon prior research in this way, the outcomes from this study contributed systematically to the development of knowledge about organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction; it also illustrated the benefits accruing to programmatic research.

However, replication was not the major concern of the study; as the following departures from the prior research indicate, the overriding intent was much greater. The present investigation greatly expanded upon many aspects of Gunn's research. First, it considered school effectiveness in terms of a comprehensive array of criteria: this was not the case in the earlier study. Second, whereas Gunn focussed upon perceptions of actual effectiveness and satisfaction in schools, this study also investigated the importance of the various dimensions under examination, in order to obtain perceptions of the most and least critical aspects of effectiveness and satisfaction and to adduce evidence to diagnose the performance of elementary schools on each measure. This attention to importance appraisal also permitted investigation of the "self-weighting" issue that has attracted interest among students of job satisfaction. Third, effort was expended to explore the nature of the sense of accomplishment, which Gunn and Holdaway (1985; 1986) and previous researchers had disclosed to be a variable worthy of close investigation. Fourth, the problem of contextual constraints on job satisfaction and school effectiveness was recognized and incorporated in the investigation. Finally, the most important departure was to enhance the trustworthiness of the data obtained in this program of study by strengthening the research design previously used: in this instance, perceptions were sought not only from principals but from a variety of organizational constituencies, and comparisons revealed some substantial differences of opinion.

The findings arising from this study also have direct implications for the practice of school administration. In the immediate term, the findings have diagnosed achievement, shortcomings and problems in the areas under investigation. Most obviously, the perceptual measures of effectiveness have highlighted aspects of elementary school operation that may require attention; this may help central educational authorities, school systems and schools to plan reforms for improving performance in elementary schools in Alberta and elsewhere. Indeed, one school district has already expressed interest in using these findings to validate its own study of effectiveness in schools. Likewise, findings about the job satisfaction of elementary school principals could be used to inform educational administrators about avenues for reform and barriers to displace so that school administration might be made more rewarding for incumbents.

In the longer term, the instruments arising out of this research may be useful for practitioners who wish to conduct their own evaluations of effectiveness and satisfaction in schools or other organizations. In particular, the instrument for principals is thought to encompass a comprehensive array of dimensions associated with job satisfaction and effectiveness of organizations and administrative personnel; users may find in them either handy diagnostic aids for pinpointing problems or at least helpful checklists for reflecting on the performance and attitudes of personnel in their organizations.

Definitions of Terms

Definitions and explanations of specific terms used in this report are recorded below.

Perception. After decades of research, the notion of perception still defies accurate and conclusive definition. Today, most psychologists view perception as a cognitive activity that follows physiological sensation (Krech, Crutchfield, Livson, Wilson &

Parducci, 1982); yet this has not resolved uncertainties about the distinction between perceiving and other cognitive activities such as inferring, categorizing and judging (Tajfel, 1969) and about the way in which perceptions are constructed. The most straightforward definition of perception remains as appropriate, well accepted and useful as any other--that perception is "the understanding of the world that you construct from data obtained through your senses" (Shaver, 1981, p. 83). Shaver recognized three important aspects of this definition: (a) perceptions are obtained, not merely by reflection or intuition, but through sensory experience; (b) the perceiver is surrounded by an objective world; and (c) the perceiver forms an impression from each stimulus. For the purposes of this study, perceptions and perceptual data were regarded as understandings and expressions of understandings of this kind.

Job satisfaction. Various definitions of job satisfaction have been advanced (e.g., Wanous and Lawler, 1972). In an early discussion of work-related concepts, Vroom (1964, p. 99) defined job satisfaction merely as "positive attitudes toward the job." Davis (1977, p. 73) preferred to write generally of "the favorableness or unfavorableness with which employees view their work" and to take into account the "fit between job characteristics and the wants of employees"--a goal-oriented stance. Locke (1976, p. 1300) emphasized the affective quality of job satisfaction in his statement that "job satisfaction may be defined . . . as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Locke (p. 1342) added that this pleasurable state arises out of a perception that the job contributes to "fulfillment of one's important job values"--provided that those values are consistent with the individual's needs. This well supported definition (e.g., Holdaway, 1978a) was adopted for this study.

Unlike the collective, future-oriented concept of "morale," job satisfaction seems to connote an individual's assessment of the past or present work situation (Locke, 1976). Fraser (1983, p. 56) supported this view of satisfaction as a "personal state, as opposed to a group state, " and as one that "tends to be seen more in retrospect than in prospect." The distinction between job satisfaction and work "motivation" is not so clear. Beyond an obvious temporal difference, obfuscation occurs because of the close association between satisfaction with the existing and past work situation and motivation for future effort; job satisfaction is thought to represent a stimulus, or motivation, for behaviour (Landy & Trumbo, 1980). Indeed, many of the theories associated with job satisfaction are theories also of work motivation. Nevertheless, Gilmer and Deci (1977, p. 231) referred to extrinsic or intrinsic rewards as a source of satisfaction but not necessarily of motivation: "They [rewards] will only motivate people if their behavior is instrumental to getting those rewards." If the individual believes that a reward will be forthcoming regardless of effort, then the factor which caused satisfaction will not motivate further effort to perform well. On the other hand, the worker will be motivated by the expectation of a future reward for good performance.

Finally, the attributes of "satisfaction" and "dissatisfaction" also need to be considered. Herzberg (1966) viewed satisfaction and dissatisfaction as qualities that are associated with distinct aspects of the job and which, therefore, could easily be regarded as having some degree of independence. The view adopted here, however, is that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are matters of degree on the same continuum. Fraser's (1983, p. 56) view of a "satisfaction/dissatisfaction continuum," wherein a particular work facet or personal attribute may shift an individual's state of mind from, say, moderate satisfaction toward dissatisfaction, now seems to enjoy considerable and understandable support.

School effectiveness. Cameron and Whetten (1983a, p. 263) argued that definitions of organizational effectiveness are "historical recordings, not prescriptions"; definitions, models and criteria are so diverse that "a single, clear definition is neither possible nor desirable." Organizational effectiveness--and, more specifically, school effectiveness--is a multi-faceted phenomenon. It surpasses mere "efficiency"--the "achievement of the greater output for the least input" (Mott, 1972, p. 17). Some authors define effectiveness in terms of achievement of official goals; others incorporate additional desired outcomes; still others focus on processes and organizational contexts. Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum's (1957, pp. 536-537) early definition embodies each of these conceptions: organizational effectiveness is "the extent to which any organization as a social system, given certain resources and means, fulfils its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain upon its members." This multidimensional definition, commended by Hoy and Ferguson (1985) in their report of a school effectiveness study, was used for this investigation. In that light, school effectiveness was operationally described as the attainment of a school on each criterion by which success is judged. Overall effectiveness was regarded as a composite of performance on all criteria used in assessing effectiveness in the various organizational dimensions.

Implied in these definitions is a selection of criteria. The literature reviewed for this study showed that criteria may be selected and success measured in accordance with a number of alternative theoretical viewpoints and from the varying perspectives of organizational "constituents." Constituents comprise "members of the organization with needs--their own and of others--to be fulfilled" (Seashore, 1983, p. 55). The definition of constituents--or, as groups, "constituencies"--also encompasses members of the external environment who provide resources to and/or benefit from organizational output, or whose values and needs otherwise affect the organizational system.

A term that is currently in vogue among some students of school effectiveness is "excellence." For example, in 1985, an entire issue of *Educational Leadership* was devoted to "Excellence: School by School." Despite the changing meaning of that word (Donaldson, 1985, p. 4), writers on educational excellence have ignored its conventional denotative meaning--"preeminent, superior" to others (*Oxford English Dictionary*, 1971, p. 915)--which implies comparison and an incapacity for a majority of organizations or individuals to attain the desired level. This study had no concern for identifying exceptional schools or principals, so this term was regarded as inappropriate.

Effectiveness of principals. School principals are widely regarded in the literature as instrumental in school effectiveness. Researchers and theorists have added to their lists of organizational effectiveness criteria a variety of behavioural characteristics, frequently exhibited by administrators of successful schools or other organizations, which are thought to represent desirable qualities of school leadership. These characteristics afford a multidimensional set of criteria for judging the quality of leadership. As with effective schools, then, the effectiveness of a principal can be regarded as the degree to which that person's attitudes and behaviours fulfil the criteria of effective leadership. Again, determination of the important effectiveness criteria for a specific context is prerequisite to any overall appraisal of a leader's effectiveness.

Criterion. To avoid any confusion for respondents, the questionnaires for this study recorded aspects of work that may be associated with job satisfaction and effectiveness merely as "work factors." In accordance with the literature, however, this investigation of effectiveness was designed to identify the dimensions of school life which serve as indicators of or criteria for judging levels of effectiveness in various domains that are of importance for overall effectiveness of schools and principals. More than this, respondents in this study were asked to use those dimensions as bases for rating the level of effectiveness of a particular school or principal. Beyond this underlying attribute of appraisal, a terminological problem arose from an almost interchangeable use of the terms "indicator" and "criterion" in the literature. Gunn (1984), for example, used "indicators" in his questionnaire but reported them as "criteria" of effectiveness. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1971, p. 1415), an indicator does no more than serve to "indicate or give a suggestion of something." The dimensions of work examined in this study, however, were viewed as being inherent in the notion of effectiveness: the effectiveness of a school or principal was regarded as dependent on the quality or level of performance on each. In this light, each of these dimensions was viewed in terms of an effectiveness yardstick or point of reference--a "principle, rule, canon, or standard, by which . . . [effectiveness] is judged or estimated" (*Oxford English Dictionary*, p. 605). This view is consistent with Scriven's (1987) definition of evaluative criteria. Hence, effectiveness is discussed in this report in terms of judgements of performance on various criteria.

At the same time, although criteria for such abstract and multi-faceted matters as effectiveness may be ascertained through inquiry, the levels of performance that practitioners deem to be sufficient to represent effectiveness on each criterion were regarded as subjective.

Constraint. Eastcott, Holdaway and Kuiken (1974, p. 1) defined a constraint in relation to administrative behaviour: "A constraint is defined as any more or less constant restriction upon an administrator's action or potential action; in some way the constraint prevents or impedes administrator action from being in line with the theoretical principles." This definition can apply equally to teachers and others in the school setting. Hence, it was accepted for this study.

Elementary school. For the purposes of this study, an "elementary school" was defined as a school in Alberta which taught students in any or all of the grades K-6 (including Elementary Special Education and Early Childhood Services) but not beyond. Where this restrictive definition needs to be emphasized, subsequent discussion will refer to schools of this kind as "pure elementary schools." Although this restrictive definition may have resulted in an urban or other bias in sampling of schools, it was seen as necessary to prevent extraneous factors such as high school grades from influencing the research findings.

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter has provided an introduction to the study. Pertinent theoretical and research literature is reviewed in the next chapter, together with implications and conceptual frameworks which guided the different stages of the investigation. Chapter 3 details the methodological procedures used to study job satisfaction and effectiveness in elementary schools. Chapter 4 reports selected organizational and personal attributes relating to principals in the main study. The following three chapters present the research findings in connection with job satisfaction of principals in Alberta, principals' perceptions of school effectiveness, and principals' perceptions of their own effectiveness. Chapter 8 examines interrelationships among the three constructs of concern. Multiple perspectives about effectiveness form the subject of Chapter 9, and the final chapter discusses the findings and records implications of the study for future research and administrative practice.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF PERTINENT LITERATURE

This chapter reviews selected contributions to the literature in four domains and considers the implications of each. The conceptual frameworks developed from the literature are also included; these guided the various phases of the inquiry.

The literature review has four sections: (a) perception theory; (b) the nature of job satisfaction for principals and other workers; (c) the effectiveness of organizations and administrators (including schools and principals) and constraints upon their effectiveness; and (d) the relationship between satisfaction and effectiveness.

Perceptions

As with all social science research, this study was founded upon perceptions. The nature of perceptions and their implications for the study need to be considered.

The means by which perceptions are formed remains a matter for some conjecture (Heil, 1983; Michaels & Carello, 1981; cf. Gibson, 1979). Nevertheless, a common view is that perception occurs as a process (Bruner, 1951; Forgus & Melamed, 1976; Kelly, 1980; Krech et al., 1982; Litterer, 1973) wherein sensory stimulation initiates "a cyclic process of orientation, feature extraction, comparison with memory, and then additional orientation, feature extraction, and comparison," (Moates & Schumacher, 1980, pp. 16-17) leading to incremental refinement of a perception.

Researchers have good reason both to study the nature of perception and to acquire and analyze perceptions as indicators of organizational attitudes and behaviour, because perceptions of situations, persons and events shape individuals' understanding of social contexts, and expressions of those perceptions reflect their affective and behavioural responses to those circumstances (Forgus and Melamed, 1976; French, Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985; Harvey, Weary & Stanley, 1985; Hochberg, 1978; Neisser, 1976;

Tagiuri, 1969; Wrightsman, 1977). Likewise, perceptions are critical determinants of behavior in organizational settings (Blake & Ramsey, 1951; Kelly, 1980; Litterer, 1973). As Davis (1977, p. 99) stated, "Reaction to employment is filtered through one's perception." Thus, if attitudes and events in educational and other social settings are guided by perceptions rather than an objective reality, it may be argued that, even if objective measures were available, these would be inferior to understanding of attitudes and behaviour gained through perceptual measures.

Researchers face three fundamental perceptual questions: (a) Are members of educational organizations able to consciously identify and express their perceptions? (b) How accurately do individuals' perceptions reflect an objective or shared reality? (c) Are perceptions shaped and distorted by recurring and perhaps identifiable factors? Attention to the first question is necessary to determine the usefulness of perceptual data. Researchers who conceive of perceptions as the best available approximation of either an objective reality or, arguably, a widely shared view of reality also need to consider the second question; this is a matter of whether perceptions of individuals investigated can be relied upon to portray the reality for the larger group or whether individual factors in perception are so substantial as to render those expressions of perception unrepresentative. Those who wish to explore further the bases of misperceptions and differing perceptions will, like their colleagues in practice, wish to consider the third question.

Capacity to Express Perceptions

Despite their centrality to attitudinal development and behavioural response, many perceptions may be beyond the capacity of individuals to consciously recognize and verbally express. A particular problem seems to arise with requests for impressions of abstract organizational attributes, as was the case with this study of job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness. In this connection, Cameron and Whetten's (1983b, pp. 12-13) study of organizational effectiveness led them to the following conclusion:

> individuals frequently cannot report accurately the criteria of organizational effectiveness that they implicitly hold. Nor are they aware of the factors that motivate their judgments or evaluations of an organization. When researchers ask various constituency members to specify important criteria of effectiveness, there is no assurance that the criteria they enumerate will be consistent with the criteria they use implicitly to judge effectiveness.

They defended this assertion by referring to research that asked respondents to rank 47 different goals relating to their organizations. As might be expected, such an onerous demand on the respondents' cognitive capacities produced inconclusive findings about their effectiveness priorities. Even so, this stands as a warning to researchers not to burden respondents unreasonably in the pursuit of perceptual data.

Accuracy of Perceptions

Most educational researchers also need to consider a related question, which concerns the likelihood of repondents' perceptions reflecting an objective or widely shared reality of the organizational settings and issues of interest. Perhaps because it is most easily measured, research in this area has focussed upon the accuracy with which individuals perceive physical objects, optical illusions, and readily identifiable and objectively investigable events. This kind of research led Rock (1975, p. 5) to conclude that "there is a high degree of correspondence" between perception and reality. However, perceptions of social events and attitudes are more difficult to assess, for their accuracy can only be judged by comparison with perceptions of other observers (Rock, 1975; Shaver, 1975). The weight of opinion about accuracy of social as well as visual perception favours the alternative view--that humans rarely perceive accurately (Allport, 1961; Blake, Ramsey & Moran, 1951; Gladstein, 1984; Wrightsman, 1977). Enns (1968, p. 287) therefore seems justified in expressing concern about perceptual inaccuracy and its consequences in educational contexts: "all of us act on the basis of our perceptions of the situations we are in, and . . . our perceptions are rarely, if ever, in complete correspondence with reality or with those of other people. . . ."

In part, this perception-reality discrepancy may be attributed to the selective nature of individual perception (Clement, 1978); to perceivers' access to only incomplete information (Hochberg, 1978; Litterer, 1973); to misunderstanding of or inability to detect events and meanings; and to omissions, additions and distortions arising out of human perceptual processes (Hochberg, 1978). Certain personal and contextual factors also seem to bias perceptions in identifiable ways which are, to some extent, systematic and predictable.

Factors Affecting Perceptions

Affective responses and organizational behaviour are shaped by perceptions of the workplace and social context. In turn, perceptions are subject to a range of influences, and, despite their variety, certain patterns are discernible. Figure 2.1 summarizes a complex array of factors that perception researchers have shown to impose on individual perception. Some factors, such as social and cultural background, organizational attributes and personality characteristics, affect perceptions of inanimate objects and physical states as well as of persons and social events. Others relate more specifically to perceptions of persons. Only some of these factors require explanation.

It is generally accepted that perceivers' understandings of the world develop cumulatively as "perceptual structures" (Clement, 1978, p. 51). Hence, new information tends to be interpreted and assimilated within the framework of existing knowledge (Allport, 1955; Clement, 1978; Kelly, 1955; Wrightsman, 1977). In this light, social/organizational experiences and cultural heritage assume prominence as powerful influences on perception formation. First impressions and recent and frequent events are particularly persuasive, although conscious effort to recognize and resist their influence can be effective (Epstein & Rock, 1960; Krech et al., 1982; Litterer, 1973). Aspects such as prior social contacts and group norms are also important (Tajfel, 1969), as is cultural background. Psychologists (e.g., Brunswik, 1944; Tagiuri, 1969) and many cultural anthropologists (e.g., Geertz, 1979; Murphy, 1979; Vivelo, 1978) seem to agree about the influence of culture on individual perceptions and behaviour. As the

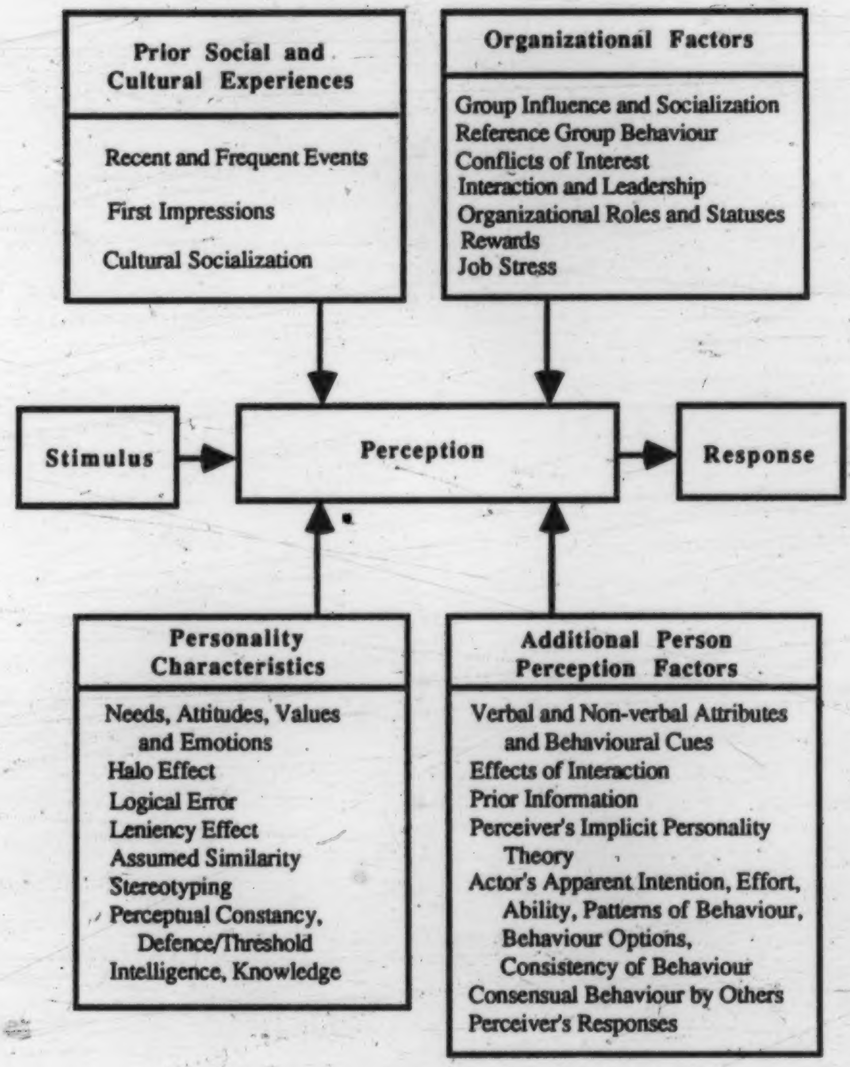
Prior Social and Cultural Experiences
Recent and Frequent Events
First Impressions
Cultural Socialization
Organizational Factors
Group Influence and Socialization
Reference Group Behaviour
Conflicts of Interest
Interaction and Leadership
Organizational Roles and Statuses
Rewards
Job Stress
Stimulus
Perception
Response
Personality Characteristics
Needs, Attitudes, Values and Emotions
Halo Effect
Logical Error
Leniency Effect
Assumed Similarity
Stereotyping
Perceptual Constancy, Defence/Threshold
Intelligence, Knowledge
Additional Person Perception Factors
Verbal and Non-verbal Attributes and Behavioural Cues
Effects of Interaction
Prior Information
Perceiver's Implicit Personality Theory
Actor's Apparent Intention, Effort, Ability, Patterns of Behaviour, Behaviour Options, Consistency of Behaviour
Consensual Behaviour by Others
Perceiver's Responses

Figure 2.1

Factors that Influence Perceptions

Hawthorne studies, numerous analyses of leadership and a range of other research initiatives have shown, interaction with leaders, colleagues and groups at work can also socialize individuals to understand organizational contexts in particular ways (French et al., 1985; Litterer, 1973).

Personal qualities of the perceiver also exert powerful influences on understandings of organizational events. Although many personality variables have been advanced, perception researchers have given most attention to five common "judgemental errors": (a) the "halo effect" of forming lasting, global impressions from initial perceptions; (b) a "logical error" of assuming that certain traits co-exist; (c) a "leniency effect" in judging other persons; (d) "assumed similarity" of others to oneself; and (e) social "stereotyping" (Krech et al., 1982; Tagiuri, 1969). Perceivers also seem to resist contradictory information through such influences as "perceptual constancy," "perceptual defence," "recognition thresholds" and "preperceptual selection" (Bartley, 1980; Kelly, 1974; Heider, 1980; Litterer, 1973; Hochberg, 1978). A range of other personality factors also intervene in the perception process. Most important, the impact of personality variables on perception appears to be considerable. As Enns (1968, p. 296) observed in the context of education, inherent characteristics of personality can cause the perceiver to "'read into' the behaviour of superiors quite different things from those we 'read into' the behaviour of colleagues or subordinates."

Perceptions of persons, relationships and behaviour are further complicated by the intervention of unobservable psychological attributes. Three domains of perception research can shed light on this matter of "person perception": (a) observations of attributes and behavior; (b) attributions to explain behaviour; and (c) use of implicit theories of personality to form impressions.

A range of external cues and internal personality characteristics combine to shape individuals' perceptions of other persons (Hochberg, 1978). Important extrinsic attributes of perceived persons include physical and facial characteristics (Tagiuri, 1969), posture, position, gaze and abnormal mannerisms (Mehrabian, 1972). In cyclical fashion, perceivers' own actions also affect the perceptions and resultant behaviour of others (Tagiuri, 1969).

Attribution theorists (e.g., Harvey & Weary, 1981; Hewstone, 1983; Shaver, 1975) argue that perceivers not only observe and describe the behaviours of other persons but attempt to identify the causes of those behaviours. A perceiver may explain an apparently intentional act as a product of an actor's disposition, the social setting or both (Wrightsman, 1977), and this helps the perceiver to acquire an understanding of the person and/or situation. An actor who appears to have high ability, to try hard, to face a difficult task or to act unconventionally is likely to be held responsible for behavioural outcomes (Antaki, 1982; Kelley, 1967; Shaver, 1981; Krech et al., 1982); alternative courses of action for the actor also influence the assignment of responsibility (Jones & Davis, 1965). The attribution can also be affected by the observer's sympathy for and understanding of the actor's circumstances (Wrightsman, 1977; Shaver, 1981). The most fundamental cause of erroneous attribution is incomplete knowledge: the observer is often unaware of all contextual circumstances and so over-attributes cause to personal characteristics of the actor.

In a similar way, perceivers make attributions to explain their own behaviours. Being aware of their own circumstances, they are less susceptible to the problem of unfounded attribution to personal factors. This represents an important source of perceptual difference: actors tend to blame outcomes on environmental factors whereas observers blame the actors (Jones & Nisbett, 1971). On the other hand, actors rarely confirm self-attributions with other observers (Olson & Ross, 1985) and they have a tendency to distort those attributions for ego-protection (Hewstone, 1983). As a general principle, while perceivers may judge themselves responsible for successes, they are likely to attribute their failures to external causes (Shaver, 1981; Wrightsman, 1977). Krech et al. (1982) further concluded from their review of research that the more perceivers participate in social situations, the greater is the likelihood and magnitude of their perceptual bias.

Beyond observation and attribution, each perceiver seems to use an implicit personality theory of personality traits that usually co-exist to form organized impressions about other persons (Krech et al., 1982; Shaver, 1981). After categorizing a person according to attributes such as physical characteristics, temperament, intelligence and socio-economic standing, characteristics that are unknown but consistent with the perceiver's implicit theory of personality are "invented" to complete a unified conception of the observed person. Then the person is rated for goodness-badness, strength-weakness and activity-passivity (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957). As Gladstein's (1984) study showed, the use of implicit theories of personality can lead to quite erroneous assessments of the personalities, motives and behaviour of co-workers and other persons.

Implications of Perception Theory for This Study

The study described in this report was based upon perceptions expressed by respondents drawn from social settings in educational organizations, and the research design was developed and effected in accordance with the perceptions of the researcher and those from whom he sought advice. For these reasons, the review of research about perception had important implications for this study.

Recognizing the potential for unreasonable demands about abstract organizational variables to produce ill-considered and inappropriate responses, the researcher was concerned to minimize the burden on the respondents in this study. To this end, questions in interviews were presented in an open-ended manner, allowing interviewees to advance perceptions about aspects of satisfaction and effectiveness that they deemed to be of major importance.

The problem of perceptual inaccuracy also had to be addressed. Since the job satisfaction of principals does not refer to an objective or collective reality, but instead represents an individual's affective response to the work situation, it involved no question of faithfulness to reality; a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction *is* necessarily the reality of the individual's own state of mind. Thus, an independent check for accuracy would be inappropriate in respect of job satisfaction. Principals' perceptions of effectiveness, however, could be expected to depart from other constituencies' perceptions, so responses were sought from other informed sources as a basis for comparison. Indeed, the differences in perceptions of respondents of differing organizational statuses bore out the doubts expressed in the literature about the inaccuracy of social perceptions.

Although the influence of cultural and other background factors was not directly explored in this study, the findings were analyzed according to a range of organizational and personal characteristics. This permitted identification of patterns in the responses which may be attributable to or at least affected by such characteristics as school type, size and location as well as the age, sex, aspirations, administrative experience and education of principals. Awareness of the tendency for actor-perceivers to attribute undesirable outcomes to the environment and successes to personal involvement prompted an investigation and comparison of responses from principals, teachers, area superintendents, parents and students. Such a check on principals' self-reports of their effectiveness was deemed to be vital. At the same time, there was a need to recognize also the limitations of relying upon respondents other than principals. First, their lesser knowledge of some organizational events could be expected to lead to over-attributions of causes to personal factors, and this alternative explanation of differing perceptions was taken into account in the discussion of findings. Second, teachers and area superintendents are also involved in and partially responsible for effective school operation, so their perceptions might have been prejudiced accordingly. Hence, data acquired from alternative, more independent information sources (parents and students) provided a useful comparison and check on the quality of the responses obtained in the study.

The researcher's perceptions also intervene in every investigation. The importance of this influence is now recognized in education (e.g., Griffiths, 1987; Jacknicke & Rowell, 1987; Owens, 1982) and other social science disciplines (e.g., Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Dimen-Schein, 1977; Gollner, 1983; Myrdal, 1978) and this matter needed to be addressed. Chapter 3 includes an overview of the orientation and major assumptions with which the researcher approached this study.

Perceptions of the researcher also exert an impact through the choice among available data collection methods, the design and wording of research instruments and the way in which research tasks are performed. Consequently, all research strategies were explained in full, and reasons for their selection were recorded. In the presentation of findings, quotations from interviews were included, not only to give depth of meaning to the findings but to allow readers to judge for themselves the veracity of the researcher's interpretations of data. In addition, qualitative and quantitative techniques were used in tandem to enhance the expansiveness and validity of the data collected. The research instruments developed for this investigation were based upon an extensive review of prior research and writing in the fields concerned and upon an initial exploration of practitioners' views of job satisfaction and school effectiveness; this strategy was adopted to minimize the influence of the researcher's own perceptions and those of individual authorities in the literature. In addition, all research instruments used in the study appear in the appendices to this report to permit independent perusal and evaluation. Finally, a variety of techniques for enhancing and establishing the validity, reliability and objectivity of the research--detailed in Chapter 3--were employed to check on the quality of the researcher's work.

Job Satisfaction

The literature has shown job satisfaction to be not only important but an extremely complex construct. Differing, often opposing, theories have been posited and research has highlighted a variety of possible sources and consequences of satisfaction. The following discussion presents a brief overview of major theories and research findings which have contributed to an understanding of job satisfaction in education. This review is followed by an examination of its implications for the present study.

Theories Relating to Job Satisfaction

Theories of job satisfaction are numerous; major theories include need-fulfilment theory, cognitive theory, discrepancy theory, equity theory, motivation-hygiene theory, facet satisfaction theory and value theory. Locke (1969, p. 309) classified some of these theories according to a "subjective framework," in which the mind and physical state of the worker are seen as the sole determinants of satisfaction (e.g., the need hierarchy of Maslow, 1970), an "intrinsic framework," where the job itself is regarded as the cause (e.g., the theory of intrinsic satisfiers and extrinsic dissatisfiers of Herzberg, 1966), and an "interactionist framework," whereby satisfaction emerges from "an interaction between the worker and his work environment" (e.g., the value formulation of Locke, 1976). An alternative approach, used for the present discussion, is to focus attention on need fulfilment and cognitive processes as distinguishing features. (At the same time, the considerable overlap in the development of needs- and cognitive-based theories is acknowledged.) Maslow's need-fulfilment theory is initially examined, together with the emergent motivation-hygiene theory. The cognitive theories are treated separately, with discrepancy and equity theories being viewed as arising primarily from this perception-based orientation. Facet satisfaction and value theories are also treated as emerging substantially from cognitive theories.

Need-fulfilment theory. In Schaffer's (1953) early theoretical formulation, overall job satisfaction was said to vary proportionately with the attainment of twelve selected needs. (These needs are not reported here, for their characteristics re-emerged in Maslow's model.) As Lawler (1973) noted, Schaffer's most valuable contribution was his recognition of the individuality of workers' importance weightings of needs; he contended that overall job satisfaction is most directly associated with each person's strongest two or three needs. On the other hand, researchers using this approach became preoccupied with measuring satisfaction on the basis of quantities of objects a worker obtained from a job, and tended to disregard feelings about desired outcomes.

Subsequently, Maslow (1970) advanced a five-level "need hierarchy" which is now well known. He argued that workers' satisfaction depends upon the extent to which their jobs cater for the following (largely unconscious) needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualization. Contrary to some interpretations (e.g., Landy & Trumbo, 1980), Maslow (1970) did not assert that an individual must be fully satisfied in respect of one need before drawing satisfaction from a higher-order need: he clearly stated otherwise. Nevertheless, the theory embodies a progression, and some measure of lower-order need achievement is usually regarded as prerequisite to the attainment of esteem and self-actualization, the higher-order needs. In addition, gratification of a need does not relieve the individual of that need; hence, "need satisfaction is a continuous problem for organizations" (Davis, 1977, p. 47). Summarizing the major research findings relating to need fulfilment for educational administrators Rice (1978, p. 21) observed generally that these two highest-level needs appear to be those most rarely satisfied in practice--a conclusion that was also found among teachers in a more recent study (Avi-Itzhak, 1986).

Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) collapsed Maslow's theory into a "two-step hierarchy" which recognized simultaneous motivation and satisfaction from attainment of multiple higher-level needs. They added, however, that failure to obtain satisfaction from reasonable security- and existence-need satisfaction precludes fulfilment of the higher-level needs.

In spite of this refinement of the need approach, Miskel (1982a, p. 71) stated that there appears to be little research evidence to support Maslow's general theory; he cited "vague and general" theoretical concepts and deficient research techniques as possible explanations, and Salancik and Pfeffer (1977, p. 442) concurred in this judgement. Landy and Trumbo (1980, p. 339) found the conflicting research evidence sufficient to regard Maslow's propositions as being "of more historical than functional value."

Motivation-hygiene theory. Major responsibility for the motivation-hygiene, or two-factor, theory has been attributed to Herzberg. Within current literature, this theory continues to attract both considerable support and extensive criticism. Herzberg (1966) posited a continuum of satisfaction that is independent of a continuum of work dissatisfaction. In other words, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are different phenomena; each is influenced by separate causes. Satisfiers, or "motivators," include achievement, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, responsibility and the work itself. Environmental dissatisfiers, or "hygiene factors," comprise technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships, policy and administration, personal working conditions, status and job security. In Herzberg's view, a factor such as sense of achievement can contribute to a worker's satisfaction, but lack of it will not cause dissatisfaction. Conversely, inadequate or inappropriate supervision of work can lead to dissatisfaction with the individual's work, but good supervision can produce no more than temporary job satisfaction.

This two-factor theory is often likened to Maslow's classification of needs: Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs are equated with Herzberg's motivators, while the lower-order needs approximate the hygiene variables (Davis, 1977; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1970; Rogers, 1975; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Davis (1977) and Fraser (1983) noted that this appears to be the case at least in socio-economically advanced countries, where workers' lower-order needs are usually fulfilled. Nevertheless, Herzberg's refutation of the motivating and satisfying power of lower-order (hygiene) needs constituted a significant departure from Maslow's theory.

Porter et al. (1975, p. 299) attributed wide acceptance of the motivation-hygiene theory to its simplicity and "good intuitive sense to many managers." On the other hand, it has provoked criticism for its dependence on a method-bound critical-incident research methodology (i.e., it tends to be validated only in studies which use the critical incident technique) (Scott & Mitchell, 1972). Rogers (1975, p. 111) alleged that respondents feel constrained by self-esteem to attribute satisfaction to their own achievements and to "blame the rest of the world for the bad things"--a view shared by Vroom (1964) and Gross and Etzioni (1985) and one that has much in common with attributional explanations of perception referred to earlier. Furthermore, Porter et al. (1975, p. 300) cast doubt upon the mutually exclusive nature of Herzberg's two factors, and the results of questionnaire research reported by Friesen, Holdaway and Rice (1981; 1983) support this view. Rice tested the appropriateness of Herzberg's findings in connection with school principals in Alberta. His findings provided limited support for Herzberg's motivator-hygiene dichotomy, but the satisfying influence of interpersonal relationships with teachers emerged as a significant exception. Moreover, factors such as pay and benefits, student attitudes and performance and challenge of work bore no significant relationship with the job satisfaction that school principals experienced. Research by Isherwood and Tallboy (1979) also questioned the appropriateness of Herzberg's "straight-forward classification" for educational settings in Canada. Their research disclosed satisfaction "dilemmas" for principals: factors which satisfy some needs (e.g., acceptance by staff) militate against fulfilment of other needs (e.g., opportunity for advancement), and they proposed that satisfiers, or "reward systems," may be much more complex than initially thought. A more popular view, then, is that expressed by Fraser (1983, pp. 53-56) in his discussion of the stress/strain-satisfaction link:

> one must recognise that there comes a time when strain is equated not merely with reduction in satisfaction, but also in generation of dissatisfaction. Thus satisfaction has to be considered as one end of a satisfaction/dissatisfaction continuum, where one state merges into the other through a region of indifference. . . . There is no upper bound of satisfaction, while the lower bound merges indistinguishably into dissatisfaction, which itself has no lower bound.

In spite of such opposition, Herzberg's work has highlighted the centrality of the job itself in job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1976) and the connection between a person's work, psychological growth and job satisfaction. This has had a significant impact upon the development of strategies for redesigning jobs to enhance the growth of role incumbents (French et al., 1985; Locke, 1976).

Cognitive theories. Cognitive theories developed in contradiction of behaviouralists' acceptance of a direct stimulus-response relationship. Initially, these theorists stressed mental processes such as drives and instincts as intervening variables that influence responses. Other cognitivists viewed satisfaction and other responses solely as consequences of thought processes, regarding stimuli as significant only insofar as they facilitate perceptions, choices and decisions by active human respondents. Essentially, the discrepancy, equity and instrumentality-valence theories are all cognitive in nature; and, as Landy and Trumbo (1980) observed, the process of perception is fundamental to them all. In this way, they all acknowledge also the individual dimension of job satisfaction.

Discrepancy theory. Discrepancy theorists stress a process of comparing outcomes against subjective standards for attainment of job satisfaction. Satisfaction is said to arise not merely from need fulfilment but according to the differences between perceived rewards earned and obtained from work inputs. In Lawler's (1973) opinion, a discrepancy promotes satisfaction if perceived rewards match or exceed anticipated benefits. Conversely, an individual who perceives the actual benefit to be less than that desired will feel dissatisfied with that outcome. Nevertheless, as Lawler (pp. 67-68) admitted, three distinct discrepancy approaches have been postulated in the literature: "the first looks at what people want, the second at what people feel they should receive, and the third [of which he disapproved] at what people expect to receive."

Equity theory. The equity theory of motivation also has significance for job satisfaction. As Landy and Trumbo (1980) explained, its concern is for input-output (e.g., effort-pay) balancing processes. Satisfaction is said to depend upon outcomes which are equitable--commensurate with or in excess of those thought to accrue to work input by the employee. Moreover, the individual judges equity by comparison of his or her own input-output balance with that of a referent person (such as a colleague).

Lawler (1973) saw equity theory as an improvement on discrepancy theory; for it *explicitly* treats satisfaction as arising not merely from comparison of perceived actual rewards with some indeterminate standard of what the worker desires but against an input-reward point of reference. Satisfaction, then, is derived from adequate rewards for the worker's effort--but adequacy is measured in terms of equity in relation to fellow workers. On the other hand, he also observed the commonality in these theories and noted (p. 69) that equity theory "is vague about how people decide what their outcomes should be."

Instrumentality-valence theory. According to Vroom (1964), individuals choose tasks or exert effort in response to "expectancy," "valence" and "instrumentality" of an outcome. Expectancy refers to the individual's belief, or perceived probability, that the outcome will occur. Instrumentality is the perception that the effort involved is responsible for that outcome. As Scott and Mitchell (1972, p. 83) explained, "expectancies are perceived probabilities, [whereas] instrumentalities are perceived correlations." Associated with these concepts is the valence, or preference for such an occurrence. Not only will valence, or perceived value to the individual, contribute to motivation, but if effort produces the desired outcome and reward then attainment of that value will generate satisfaction.

Vroom's cognitive theory of motivation has been criticized mostly for the short-lived usefulness of the detailed information that it generates: instrumentalities and valences change over time, so the information is soon dated (Scott & Mitchell, 1972). Even so, this approach enjoys considerable theoretical support; and, together with the equity and discrepancy notions, it was influential in the development of Lawler's (1973) model of facet satisfaction and contributed to Locke's (1976) value theory.

Facet satisfaction theory. Lawler (1973) contributed an important dimension to cognitive theory about job satisfaction. Although he saw equity and discrepancy theories as paramount in the literature, his model also drew upon Vroom's instrumentality-valence conceptualization of motivation. In place of "valences," Lawler referred to "affective responses" generated from individuals' internal thought processes. Lawler (p. 64) also distinguished between overall job satisfaction, or a person's "affective reactions to his total work role," and "facet satisfaction," which encompasses "the affective reactions to particular job aspects such as pay, supervision and opportunities for promotion."

Lawler's model sought to explain satisfaction in terms of particular facets of an individual's job. He proposed that individuals are more likely to experience facet dissatisfaction where they perceive that they either make high input contributions, have difficult, important or responsible jobs, suffer less favourable input-output balances than equivalent peers, or receive low job outcomes. Lawler agreed with Locke (1969) and other cognitive theorists when arguing that, regardless of the reality of workers' relative efforts and rewards, perceptions determine satisfaction with job facets; and for any job facet a discrepancy will represent the difference between the perceived actual and perceived equitable effort or reward. Holdaway (1978a, p. 34) referred to this as "the discrepancy between ideal and actual states." As Gruneberg (1976) noted, unlike motivation-hygiene theory, this approach admits the possibility that satisfaction and dissatisfaction may not have entirely separate and distinct causes--a stance noted earlier.

Finally, overall job satisfaction represents a compilation of these facet discrepancies; Lawler (1973) noted that pay, supervision and the work itself are frequently high-importance facets. At the same time, each facet must be weighted according to individuals' own perceptions of their relative importance. Not surprisingly, however, researchers (e.g., Ewen, 1967; Gunn & Holdaway, 1986; Holdaway, 1978a;

Rice, 1978; Wanous & Lawler, 1972) have been unable to establish algebraic relationships between overall satisfaction and satisfaction with various facets. Rice's (1978) research in particular highlighted the individuality of factor importance ratings that contribute to an employee's overall satisfaction--a finding which agrees with Fraser's (1983, p. 56) assertion about the individuality of this "personal state" and with the foregoing discussion of perceptions and diverse influences on perception formation. In Lawler's (1973) view, the satisfaction-importance function for the various facets may matter little anyway, for importance may already be reflected in the degrees of facet satisfaction/dissatisfaction experienced and expressed.

Value theory. Locke (1976) synthesized the major elements of earlier theories into an expansive framework of job satisfaction. He identified needs as innate, objective variables, and distinguished them from individuals' subjective, learned desires, or "values"--"that which one consciously or subconsciously desires, wants, or seeks to attain." Moreover, Locke (p. 1309) regarded values as the chief determinants of satisfaction; for, in his opinion, man's "values determine his actual choices and emotional reaction"--a claim which has been taken up by Greenfield (1985, 1986) and other critics of conventional social science and educational theories. At the same time, Locke (p. 1317) placed values in context by modifying the definition of job satisfaction cited earlier to involve "the fulfilment of values that are congruent with the individual's needs."

Just as Maslow created a need hierarchy, so Locke proposed a "value hierarchy" to rank values according to the individual's perception of the "content" (significance) and "intensity" of feeling for each; for these affective responses determine facet satisfaction. In this way, Locke moulded previous notions of discrepancy, job facets and his own emphasis on need and value hierarchies into a pervasive and coherent explanation of job satisfaction. For this reason, this theory represented the most advanced and pervasive theoretical approach for investigating job satisfaction in the present study.

Factors Associated with Job Satisfaction

Drawing upon this collection of theoretical formulations, researchers have devoted considerable effort to establishing levels of job satisfaction and to identifying and testing relationships between job satisfaction and a variety of job-related factors (job facets) and personal characteristics. Studies of job satisfaction levels have been conducted at the organizational level and beyond. For example, Headey and Wearing's (1981) national survey of Australians ascertained that most workers were at least moderately satisfied with their jobs and working conditions. Similar outcomes have been obtained in a variety of countries (see Fraser, 1983) and in studies in specific organizational settings. Particular research attention, however, has been directed at job facets and personal characteristics that may contribute to satisfaction at work.

This section is not intended to summarize the entire array of studies of relevant work and personal variables; instead, a brief review of selected findings--most particularly, those relating to educational contexts--will suffice to highlight the diversity of variables involved and the complexity of relationships between job satisfaction and the factors that appear to contribute to and/or result from it.

Job facets. Bennis (1976, p. 167) maintained that "what gives one satisfaction in one's job. . . . above all [is] the opportunity and capacity to learn." Beyond this contention, however, research in business, educational and other contexts has established the relevance of many other job-related sources of satisfaction. As Fraser (1983, p. 24) explained, "There are multiple facets to the working state, some of which are more satisfying, or perhaps more acceptable, and others less. Job satisfaction at best describes in comparative terms some integrated mean of that state at some point in time." For example, French et al. (1985) referred to friendliness and respect of colleagues, job independence and security, and opportunity for accomplishment as the most satisfying aspects of work for respondents in a survey of young, professional, highly-educated workers. Least satisfying were respondents' chances for promotion, feedback about performance and pay. In a chartered accounting setting, Sorensen and Sorensen (1974) linked job satisfaction with professional-bureaucratic role conflict and deprivation (perceived lack of professional achievement), particularly for employees with "low bureaucratic orientations" (high desires for autonomy). In other settings, Brass (1981) focussed on three task characteristics which may affect job satisfaction--centrality and importance of the task position and "transaction alternatives" (access to multiple sources of task support)--yet Katz's (1978) research qualified the task-job satisfaction relationship by showing that different job characteristics assume priority for job satisfaction according to employees' longevity in their appointments. New employees were found to be more satisfied when they had less autonomy, more feedback and greater task significance, whereas more established workers drew satisfaction from greater skill variety and independent work. Headey and Wearing's (1981) Australian survey identified strong correlations between workers' job satisfaction and interest in the job, opportunity to use skills and abilities at work, and prospects of promotion: pay levels, volume of work and satisfaction with co-workers had little connection with job satisfaction. Fraser's (1983, p. 31) review of research led him to posit financial reward as a "significant but not necessarily primary factor" in job satisfaction in most industries.

Organization structure is widely thought to have profound implications for job satisfaction. As Oldham and Hackman (1981) explained, two main theoretical approaches have been used to explore relationships between structure and job satisfaction (and motivation). The "attraction-selection" framework theorizes that organizations with particular structural properties attract or select employees according to their personal characteristics--that is, personal variables moderate the satisfaction-structure relationship. An alternative view is expressed in the "job-modification" framework, which conceives of structural characteristics moulding job characteristics to suit participants' desires and needs. Applying a combination of these frameworks to their own study in business organizations, Oldham and Hackman

(1981) found "modest" relationships to suggest that structure influences job satisfaction through job-related and personality-related factors, although they had to acknowledge that their interpretations about causality were "not technically justified." Bacharach and Mitchell's (1983) subsequent review led them to cite bureaucratization, supervision and participation in decision making as the primary organizational variables, yet the findings from their study of United States school superintendents and principals provided only limited support for this assertion. Grassie and Carss (1973) furnished evidence of relationships between job satisfaction and organizational climate and structure, teachers' experience and professional orientation in Australian schools. A review of research by Ratsoy (1973, p. 169) also offered evidence of a bureaucratic structure-job satisfaction relationship.

Survey research by Miskel, Fevurly and Stewart (1979) and a review by Conway (1984) disclosed partial support for participative decision making processes as a source of job satisfaction for teachers, and an Australian study by Gaffney (1983) found satisfaction to be associated with participation in some areas of school decision making (classroom management, arrangement of school instructional programs and general school organization) but not others (curriculum planning and curriculum adaptation). Larson (1977) also commented on Aiken and Hage's isolation of participation, bureaucratic structure and role enforcement as strong predictors of job satisfaction, and Lawler (1973) cited a long tradition of research that supports power equalization and other dimensions of leadership style as important for job satisfaction of employees.

Numerous other factors, such as personal goals, role perceptions, role conflict, role ambiguity/clarity, autonomy, task significance, job challenge, job stress and job burnout have also been posited as possible sources of influence on job satisfaction. Early research reviews (Vroom, 1964; Scott & Mitchell, 1972) correlated job satisfaction with considerate supervisory behaviour, although the direction of that relationship was not established. Saha's (1975) study of university educators linked job satisfaction (as well as job attraction) with incumbents' perceptions of their goals and occupational roles. According to Szilagyi (1977), early research suggested that competing role expectations (role conflict) and uncertainty about roles (role ambiguity) are detrimental to job satisfaction, although other studies have since disclosed organizational level (Schuler, 1977; Szilagyi, 1977), need for achievement, need for independence (Johnson & Stinson, 1975), self-esteem of the worker (Mossholder, Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981) and autonomy (Beehr, Walsh & Taber, 1976) as moderating variables. Oldham and Hackman's (1981) job characteristics model treated autonomy and task significance as two core job dimensions contributing to job satisfaction, although Walsh, Taber and Beehr (1980) emphasized role clarity in conjunction with job challenge (variety and autonomy). Insufficient and excessive stress is often associated with job dissatisfaction (Fraser, 1983; Friesen et al., 1983; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982; Seiler & Pearson, 1984). Interestingly, although Brief, Schuler and Von Sell (1981, p. 22) regarded job dissatisfaction as "the most well-established consequence of job stress" and Gunn (1984, p. 41) considered that "job dissatisfaction . . . is always a consequence of job burnout," Rice (1978, p. 15) viewed the stress-satisfaction causal link in reverse. Rice referred to evidence showing dissatisfaction as a source of anxiety, frustration and aggressiveness. Seiler and Pearson (1984) also stated that high work satisfaction can deter burnout.

Job satisfaction may also have implications for other aspects of work in organizations. Fraser (1983, p. 33) offered evidence that is "suggestive" of a cause-effect relationship between workers' job satisfaction and safety of behavior. More important for the present discussion is evidence of a weak relationship between dissatisfaction and both resignation from employment and absenteeism (Lawler, 1973; Vroom, 1964; Kaplan & Tausky, 1977; Gross & Etzioni, 1985). Kreis (1985) argued that absenteeism among teachers is a particular consequence of dissatisfaction--one that has serious implications for school district budgets and continuity of instruction.

Assertions about turnover and absenteeism are based on a range of studies such as that by Ross and Zander (1970) which established a link between need satisfaction and turnover. However, Landy and Trumbo (1980) added that, despite earlier evidence and an understandable inclination among managers to connect these variables, more recent research has been unable to confirm absenteeism and turnover as direct consequences of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction; following research with United States teachers, Bridges (1980) supported that view.

Considerable effort has also been expended to associate job satisfaction with the quality of workers' performance; indeed, this was once a prime motivator for research into job satisfaction. Research findings in this regard will be examined in a later section on the satisfaction-effectiveness relationship.

Some authors have tried to capture the essential features of findings such as those referred to above and to condense them into a collection of variables commonly associated with overall job satisfaction. Vroom's (1964) early classification is significant, for it has pervaded many subsequent attempts. Factors identified by Vroom include attitudes toward the following: the company and company management, financial rewards, working conditions and co-workers. Lawler (1973) recorded a similar list of common factors: content of the job, supervision, financial remuneration, promotion, working conditions and co-workers. Based on a study of academic staff in Australia, Saha (1975) identified the following dimensions: salary, instructional workload, promotion opportunities, facilities, collegial relationships, fringe benefits, relationships with administrators and interest in students. From a study of Alberta teachers, Holdaway (1978b) delineated seven school-related sources of satisfaction: recognition and status, students, resources, teaching assignment, involvement with administration, workload, and salary and benefits. After reviewing prior research in industry and education, Rice (1978) also compiled a list of seven factors, approximating those of Vroom, to account for the satisfaction of school principals: the work itself, occupational status and prestige, interaction with district administration, interaction with teachers, interaction with students, salary and benefits, and working conditions. Clearly, although there is considerable overlap in these aggregations, some important differences are apparent; this suggests that situational and personal variables also need to be considered.

Personal variables. Not only have work variables been posited as pervasive sources of job satisfaction, but, in accordance with the more general assertion that individuals' work lives are interactively associated with their personal lives (Blase & Pajak, 1986; Fraser, 1983), a variety of personal characteristics have been said to affect employees' facet and overall job satisfaction (Hulin & Smith, 1976; Klein & Maher, 1976; Lawler, 1973; Saleh & Otis, 1976; Van Maanen & Katz, 1976; Vroom, 1964; Wild & Dawson, 1976). The study of the contribution of personal variables to job satisfaction is not new; research of this kind was initiated as early as 1930 (Vroom, 1964).

Lawler's (1973) and Rice's (1978) summaries of factors associated with job satisfaction, many of which are not directly job-related, are relevant sources. Lawler noted education and skill of the worker as important and direct determinants of satisfaction; age and seniority, however, tend to vary in either direct or curvilinear relationships. Rice's review of research identified five types of variables that are frequently advanced as affecting job satisfaction: personal variables (age, sex and locus of control over the environment), social variables (marital status and community location), professional variables (experience, educational level and involvement) and organizational variables (administrative assignment, organizational size and task assignment). Other reviews (e.g., Davis, 1977) support many of these elements. The expansiveness of this list highlights the importance of all aspects of individuals' personal and work experiences for the satisfaction they derive from work involvements.

Recognizing the need to understand the nature of job satisfaction in educational settings, some researchers have investigated the appropriateness of the foregoing theories and relevance of various job facets and personality attributes for the satisfaction of teachers and school administrators. In view of the intent of the present research, these studies warranted closer attention.

Job satisfaction of teachers. Researchers have paid close attention to teachers' job satisfaction. A few studies (e.g., Dold & Duff, 1986) have used longitudinal data to ascertain trends. Most research, however, has examined job facets for possible association with the satisfaction of teachers. Theoretical perspectives for these studies have varied: Sergiovanni (1967) found some support for Herzberg's theory with United States teachers; Miskel, DeFrain and Wilcox (1980) applied Vroom's expectancy (instrumentality-valence) theory in relating job satisfaction to motivation and perceived teaching performance; Smart and Morstain (1975) and Knoop and O'Reilly (1976) used the *Job Descriptive Index* (see Ewen, Smith, Hulin & Locke, 1976; Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) with differing results. In spite of this variation in perspectives, certain job facets have emerged in studies with teachers. Holdaway (1978b), for example, identified "the work itself" and six other clusters of relevant job facets from a study in Alberta; MacQueen and Ignatovich (1986) used the same instrument with United States teachers and confirmed aspects of the work as central to job satisfaction. Other researchers have linked teachers' job satisfaction with various attributes of the workplace (Allen, Hamelin & Nixon, 1976; Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983; Conway, 1984; Diemert & Holdaway, 1970; Gosine & Keith, 1970; Grassie & Carss, 1973; Menutti & Kottkamp, 1986; Miskel & Gerhardt, 1974; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982; Seiler & Pearson, 1984), behaviour of principals (Hewitson, 1975) and personal characteristics of the teachers (Kreis, 1985; Miskel, Glasnapp & Hatley, 1975).

Job satisfaction of principals. Following a review of the "relatively few studies" on job satisfaction of school principals, Gunn (1984, p. 45) concluded that there is "little continuity of theoretical framework or research methodology." Studies using various methodological strategies have disclosed a range of associations. Using Herzberg's framework and critical incident technique, Schmidt (1976) established achievement, recognition and advancement as sources of satisfaction and salary, whereas interpersonal relations with teachers, peers and superiors were dissatisfiers. Iannone's (1973) study produced similar findings: major satisfiers were achievement and recognition and dissatisfaction centred on relationships with teachers, students, superintendents and parents, as well as the quality of staff and behaviour of students. In other studies, principals' job satisfaction has correlated positively with Likert management model characteristics of "mutual confidence and trust, shared decision-making, ego-enhancement and interaction influence networks" (Carr, 1971, p. 75), and negatively with bureaucratization, supervision, constrained decision-making power (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983), emotional exhaustion, role conflict and powerlessness (Kottkamp & Travlos, 1986). In a Canadian setting, Isherwood and Tallboy's (1979, p. 169) exploratory research highlighted the moderating influence of age upon the relative importance of job facets, but those researchers added that "working with students and being part of the school team" is an outstanding component of satisfaction for many elementary school principals.

Two Alberta studies exhibit some consistency of methodology, setting and theoretical foundation and so afford a greater measure of comparability. Rice (1978) found elementary and high school principals to be moderately satisfied with their jobs. However, Rice also identified work involvement with teachers, principals' feelings of responsibility and autonomy, and sense of accomplishment as major sources of overall job satisfaction. Overall job dissatisfaction focussed upon administration and policies but also included volume and challenge of work, societal attitudes about education and relationships with parents. Rice's study further revealed that satisfaction for principals in this province was related to type of authority and locus of control, positively associated with age and experience but negatively related to teaching involvement and excessively large or small schools (Rice, 1978; Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1984).

In support of Rice's findings, Gunn and Holdaway (1985; 1986) more recently ascertained that senior high school principals experienced overall satisfaction with their work, and they discovered variation in principals' levels of satisfaction according to both organizational characteristics (e.g., school setting, type of school system, grades in the school and size of school) as well as personal characteristics (e.g., age and experience in the present position). Beyond this, Gunn and Holdaway found sense of accomplishment to be the best predictor of their respondents' job satisfaction, and they identified close associations among senior high school principals' sense of accomplishment, their perceived effectiveness as leaders and their perceived levels of influence and autonomy.

However, Gunn and Holdaway (1986) were no more able than Rice, Schmidt, Iannone and other researchers to explain the meaning of the seemingly crucial variable, "sense of accomplishment"--beyond linking it with recognition by others and with the morale and performance of teachers and students. Hence, they called for further research to explain its composition and associations with effectiveness and other aspects of school life. This notion of sense of accomplishment, or "sense of achievement," has likewise emerged as central to and unexplained in studies of teachers' satisfaction (Holdaway, 1978b; MacQueen & Ignatovich, 1986; Wodlinger, 1986; Wood, 1982). On the other hand, the *JDI* (Smith et al., 1969) referred to earlier was sufficiently *in*explicit to admit the notion of sense of accomplishment as an affective response to the job in general, that is, impliedly as a dimension of job satisfaction itself rather than as a specific job facet contributing to satisfaction, as was the case in instruments developed and used in studies by Holdaway, Rice, Gunn and other researchers. Moreover, this would appear to be the more logical meaning of this term, and it helps to explain the Alberta researchers' conclusion that it may relate job satisfaction with other aspects of work such as personal effectiveness.

Implications of the Job Satisfaction Literature for This Study

The most significant conclusion to emerge so far from the studies of interrelationships between various job facets, personal attributes, behaviour and job satisfaction is that satisfaction remains an extremely complex and confusing issue. Clearly, differences arise among occupations, work contexts and individual employees. Equally apparent, however, is the non-cumulative, exploratory manner in which much of this research has been conducted. These piecemeal initiatives lend support to Lawler's (1973) claim that much research on job satisfaction is atheoretical, a contention by Gruneberg (1979) and Landy and Trumbo (1980) that inconsistent findings and confusion in the literature have arisen out of differing research instruments, and Bridges's (1982, p. 24) more general criticism about a "lack of connectedness among research studies" in educational administration. There remains a significant need for systematic research in this area.

Based on the foregoing discussion of the theoretical and research literature, the following theoretical framework (shown diagrammatically in Figure 2.2) was developed to guide this study of school principals' job satisfaction. Research evidence includes a substantial array of job facets which may be important sources of satisfaction; the precise combination of facets and relative importance of each, however, may be expected to vary from one work setting and individual to another. Based upon Lawler's (1973) model, specific job facets may be said to generate satisfaction only as a result of cognitive processes that produce perceived discrepancies from actual-expected facet comparisons. As earlier discussion and an assertion by Davis (1977) highlighted, an important element of those processes is perception. No causal link between satisfaction and performance on the job yet been conclusively established, so this possibility of a reverse effect must be accommodated. Personal characteristics of the individual also impose upon the relationship between job facets and satisfaction; these may be regarded as intervening variables. An individual's satisfaction and dissatisfaction with component factors

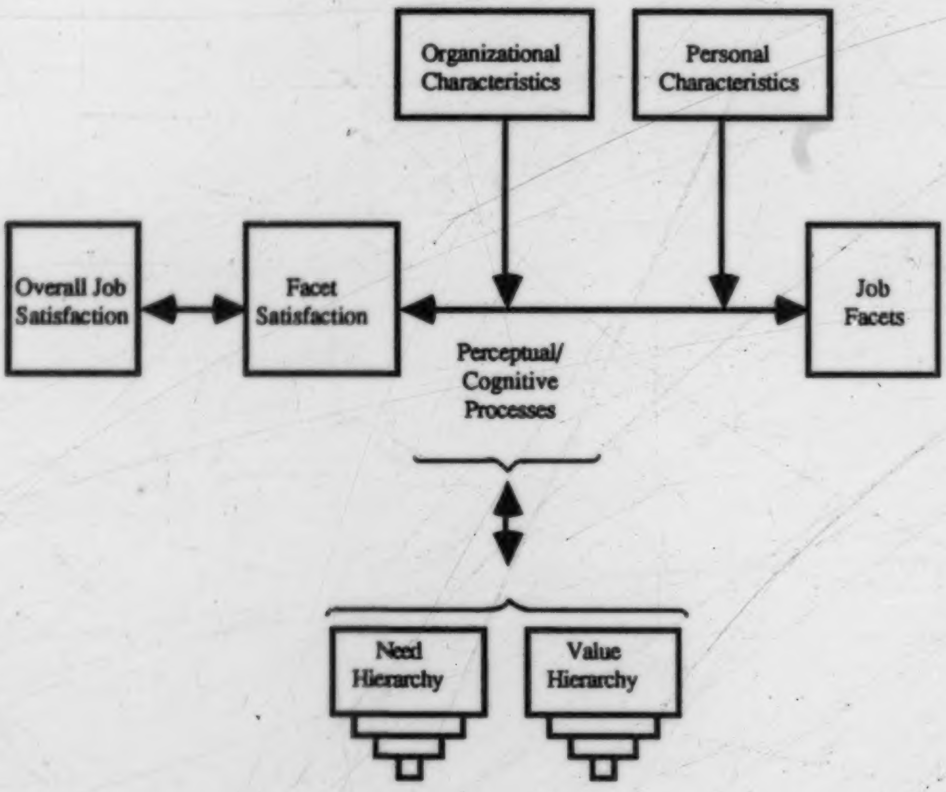
Organizational Characteristics
Personal Characteristics
Overall Job Satisfaction
Facet Satisfaction
Job Facets
Perceptual/ Cognitive Processes
Need Hierarchy
Value Hierarchy

Figure 2.2

Conceptual Relationships of Work Facets and Personal Characteristics with Job Satisfaction aggregate to provide an overall measure of the the worker's job satisfaction.

However, the individuality of perceptions and personal factors prevents accurate summation or multiplication of satisfaction on various facets to ascertain overall job satisfaction; so overall job satisfaction can be assessed only by separate investigation of a global feeling about the job. Maslow's (1970) view of a personal need hierarchy and Locke's (1976) recognition of a concurrent value hierarchy are acknowledged in this framework. Needs and values affect perceptions of the job--as Davis (1977, p. 49) commented, "perceptions are strongly influenced by personal values"--and weightings of the relative importance of facets for satisfaction. At the same time, individual facet satisfaction and/or overall job satisfaction may also be expected to contribute to fulfilment of the various innate needs and acquired values of the individual worker. As subsequent discussion will show, job satisfaction may also be associated with other organizational factors such as effectiveness of performance. Even so, extrinsic remuneration and/or intrinsic rewards such as sense of accomplishment may moderate those relationships.

This literature also had methodological implications for the present study. These are detailed in Chapter 3.

Effectiveness of Schools and Principals

While practitioners have always been interested in organizational effectiveness, extensive theoretical interest emerged only during the 1960s and 1970s. In the business domain, attention came to be focussed not merely on practical determinants of global effectiveness but upon the concepts, criteria and indicators which may be associated with success in various types of organizations and settings. Educational interest emerged in response to a flagging public faith in the quality of education and an associated pressure for accountability of educators and administrators. As Ratsoy (1983, p. 5) remarked, there has been "an ever-increasing pressure to provide evidence that our schools and school systems are effective and efficient. The catch-phrase of the day seems to be 'restore confidence in the schools'." As a consequence, an extensive body of literature has developed in the pursuit of understanding, assessment and enhancement of school effectiveness.

Input-output Analyses

Educational researchers were stimulated to examine the effectiveness of schools largely as a result of two seminal input-output studies in United States schools conducted by Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld and York (1966) and Jencks, Smith, Acland, Bane, Cohen, Gintis, Heyns and Michelson (1972). Both inquiries had attempted to derive quantitative "production functions" of various educational inputs and student learning attainment in an effort "to determine what is effective in producing the desired educational outcomes" (McMahon, 1982, p. 11). Despite sharp criticism of the methodological bases for those studies, input-output studies became "an academic obsession among sociologists and economists during the 1970s, and intense interest in such research persists" (Bickel, 1986, p. 190). The "unhappy conclusion" from these studies was that "variations in school resources have little to do with an individual's eventual level of competence in reading, verbal and calculating skills" (Coakley & Foster-Gross, 1973, p. 38). These findings were all too hastily "embodied in the slogan 'schools don't make a difference'" (Bickel, 1986, p. 181). Consequently, Lezotte (1986, pp. 1-2) recently described that period of school effectiveness research as viewing schools as "benign"--"passive partners in the maintenance of the social status quo."

These findings prompted close investigation of the methods of inquiry used in input-output research as well as considerable effort to examine the impact of schools on students in more expansive ways. Critics cited an array of shortcomings: multicolinearity of input effects and the broader problem of distinguishing school effects from the cumulative impact of genetically endowed differences among students, prior achievement and neighbourhood, home and peer-group influences (Benson, 1978; Garms, Guthrie & Pierce, 1978); an unwarranted statistical assumption of direct, linear covariation of inputs and outputs (Glasman & Biniaminov, 1981); and dependence on standardized reading and mathematics test scores as measures of the problematic goals of education (Bowles, 1970; Richards & Ratsoy, 1985). Various other methodological shortcomings were also said to apply (see, e.g., Edmonds et al., 1973). As a result, the findings from input-output studies have been dismissed by some as "uninterpretable" (Bickel, 1986, p. 190) and "useless for immediate purposes such as informing public-policy" (Garms et al., 1978, p. 253).

Other observers were more optimistic. They argued that, even if the impact of schools on student achievement is small, effective operation of schools makes some contribution to the attainment of student achievement. Research inquiry and practical effort in this domain is therefore warranted (Good & Brophy, 1986; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Wendling & Cohen, 1981). The input-output findings served as a stimulus for educational researchers to look more closely at attributes of the effective schools.

Effective Schools Research

The dominant approach to school effectiveness research in the 1970s and 1980s has been descriptive studies of effective schools--"schools that had exhibited success in student achievement beyond what would have been predicted by the socio-economic status of their student populations" (Clark, Lotto & Astuto, 1984, p. 46).

Building upon Weber's (1971) seminal study of successful inner-suburban United States schools, Edmonds (1979, p. 20) obtained research findings that contradicted the much publicized input-output studies and supported his thesis that "all children are eminently educable and that the behavior of the school is critical in determining the quality of that education." The distinguishing characteristics of effectiveness from the two studies were parallel: (a) high expectations of instructional effectiveness among staff; (b) strong leadership by the principal; (c) an orderly, quiet and work-oriented atmosphere; (d) an emphasis on academic activities and development; and (e) frequent monitoring of students' achievement. Edmonds added a sixth attribute: a focus of resources on academic instruction. In the succeeding decade, these kinds of features have recurred repeatedly in studies of schools which are widely regarded or measured as successful.

Subsequent investigations have not only brought some depth of understanding of these dimensions but have added new dimensions to the checklists of criteria. For example, one well-known and particularly "carefully conducted, important study" (Good & Brophy, 1986, p. 557) in Britain (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston & Smith, 1979) examined correlations between classroom processes and a range of outcome measures. That study highlighted the importance of uninterrupted classroom instruction, collaborative work by teachers, care of physical facilities and consistent use of positive and negative sanctions, as well as an array of student outcomes that may be relevant (attendance, behaviour, examination success, employment and delinquency). In a United States setting, Rossmiller (1983) emphasized "time on task" as an important aspect of effectiveness. Cooper (1983, p. 34) commended a collective commitment to school goals, and principals who are "preoccupied by instruction." Crisci, March and Peters (1986, p. 2) alluded to "parent involvement or support." Clark et al. (1984), who translated Peters and Waterman's (1982) formula for success into educational criteria, referred to the presence of adequate slack time and resources as well as an attitude of mutual concern among students, teachers and administrators.

Despite this apparent variation in the findings, clusters of effectiveness criteria proposed by most researchers and writers have been broadly consistent (e.g., Azumi, 1987; Educational Research Service, 1983; Lezotte, 1986; McCormack-Larkin, 1985; Mann & Inman, 1984; Pollack, Chrispeels & Watson, 1987; Renihan & Renihan, 1984; Rowan, Bossert & Dwyer, 1983; Stampen, 1984). Moreover, periodic reviews (Fullan, 1985; Good & Brophy, 1986; Mackenzie, 1983; Purkey & Smith, 1982, 1983;

Robinson, 1985; Rosenholtz, 1985) have captured the major thrust of much of this rapidly expanding literature.

Purkey and Smith (1982) reviewed a number of major studies on effective schools. They drew useful distinctions among "outlier studies," "case studies," "program evaluations" and "other studies." The first classification included studies of academically exceptional schools--both effective and ineffective. Distinctive characteristics of effectiveness and ineffectiveness were usually extracted by survey or case study research; and quality of the research and emerging conclusions varied considerably. Characteristics of effectiveness which were common among these studies were firm school discipline, generally high expectations for student achievement and, to a lesser extent, principals' emphasis on instructional leadership. Five criteria of effectiveness emerged from their review of case studies: (a) strong leadership, (b) high expectations of staff and students, (c) clear school goals, (d) organization-wide staff development, and (e) progressive assessment of students. According to Good and Brophy (1986), the consistency of the case study findings lends credibility to these variables. Program evaluation studies, which Purkey and Smith judged to be methodologically superior, disclosed similar characteristics of school effectiveness: (a) high moral and academic expectations among staff, (b) extensive staff influence in decision making about instructional and professional development, (c) decisive school leadership, (d) clear goals and (e) "a sense of order in the school." Finally, these reviewers alluded to studies which tentatively linked academic achievement with private schooling, a school's "structure of order," school safety and the quality of school leadership.

Based on an acknowledged consistency among these findings, Purkey and Smith developed a tentative school effectiveness framework of organizational variables (structure, norms, values and technology) and process, or culture, variables (relationships and communication flow). Purkey and Smith's (1983) subsequent benchmark review of school effectiveness studies distinguished more carefully among the "organization/structure variables" and "process variables." The former were said to include (a) an emphasis on autonomous management at the school level; (b) assertive instructional leadership; (c) stability of staff (low turnover); (d) shared goals; (e) emphasis on staff development across the school; (f) concern for academic success; (g) effective use of time; and (h) support from the central office. Despite a lack of empirical support they appended a ninth variable, namely, supportive parents. Four culture variables were also identified: (a) collegial relationships and collaborative work; (b) a feeling of community; (c) clearly defined goals and high expectations and (d) "order and discipline" with little noise, distraction and risk. One of the most useful contributions of this review was Purkey and Smith's conclusion that the organization variables offer a context within which processual characteristics may also develop. Both sets of variables were said to be vital for school success.

Fullan (1985) also adopted the distinction between organization variables and process variables. However, he listed the organizational criteria slightly differently:

> (1) instructionally focused leadership at the school level, (2) district support, (3) emphasis on curriculum and instruction (e.g., maximizing academic learning), (4) clear goals and high expectations for students, (5) a system for monitoring performance and achievement, (6) ongoing staff development, (7) parental involvement and support, and (8) orderly and secure climate.

Emphasizing the danger of overlooking the dynamics of organizational process, Fullan extracted from three prior reviews and from Peters and Waterman's (1982) study of business organizations a slightly different aggregation of process variables. First, effectiveness demands leaders who have a "feel" for their organizations: an understanding of possibilities as well as of practicality. To repeat March's metaphor, effective leaders realize that "organizations are to be sailed rather than driven" (Fullan, 1985, p. 401). Second, effective schools possess explicit, shared goals as guides for organizational activity. Third, successful schools are characterized by constant communication of ideas and collegial support and interaction. A final process criterion may be collaborative effort by administrators and teachers in preparing for instruction.

Robinson (1985, pp. 1, 3), who regarded the effective schools research as "the most important body of educational information to be developed in the past two decades," highlighted "a degree of consistency and rhythm in the research findings," and this was seen as making those findings "useful as a framework for school improvement." Likewise, Rosenholtz (1985, p. 353) concluded that "all studies produce common findings with remarkable consistency."

Beyond the superficiality of these consistent findings, three dimensions of effectiveness warrant closer attention. The first relates to the somewhat ambiguous notion of orderliness; and, in this regard, Purkey and Smith's (1983, p. 440) astute observation is noteworthy: "there is a remarkable and somewhat disturbing resemblance between the traditional view of schools as serious, work-oriented, and disciplined institutions where students were supposed to learn their three R's and the emerging view of modern effective schools." Mackenzie (1983, p. 9) further characterized an effective school as one that exhibits "an orderly and disciplined environment in both the school and the classroom" with "clear and consistent school policies that reinforce the authority of teachers" and positive reinforcement of productive behaviour. Perhaps not wishing to condone regimentation, few other writers have been so direct in discussing orderliness.

A second troublesome attribute of school effectiveness concerns the question of consensual goals. A number of authors (e.g., Meyer & Rowan, 1978; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rosenholtz, 1985) have argued that schools now tend to be "loosely coupled systems" where educators work with differing and uncertain goals and substantial independence from bureaucratic authority. This view contrasts sharply with the notion of shared goals. Rosenholtz attempted to explain the phenomenon of consensual goals with reference to principals' exemplary attitudes and careful recruitment of staff, and socialization of new teachers to accept existing collegial norms.

Of even greater importance is "a school's culture, or more specifically its climate" (Purkey & Smith, 1983, p. 444). Though widely regarded as central to school effectiveness, the nature of this dimension remains unclear. Rutter et al. (1979, p. 179) found that "the ethos, or set of values, attitudes and behaviours" that characterized effective schools "as social institutions" were exhibited in an academic emphasis, positive instructional behaviours (high "topic time") by teachers, rewards and praise for achievement, and pleasant and comfortable conditions for students. Purkey and Smith (1983), who accommodated many elements within their conception of culture, paid particular attention to collegial work and an atmosphere that encourages experimentation and review. These ideas seem to derive largely from Little's (1981, 1982) ethnographic study of six "demonstrably successful" schools. Little identified "collegiality" and "experimentation" as two pervasive norms of staff that shaped teachers attitudes and approaches to preparation and instruction. Four specific practices--regular, academic "talk," "mutual observation," "joint preparation" and "teaching each other"--were found to provide evidence of and reinforcement for those desirable norms. Saphier and King (1985) and Johnson (1984) obtained similar findings.

The Principal's Role in School Effectiveness

Numerous studies and reviews (e.g., Azumi, 1987; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982; Crisci et al., 1986; Duignan, 1985; Firestone & Wilson, 1987; Flanagan, 1983; W. Greenfield, 1986; Griffiths, 1987; Huge, 1977; Johnson & Snyder, 1985; Kottkamp & Travlos, 1986; Larsen, 1987; Little, 1982; Mackenzie, 1983; Mackett, 1987; Pratt & Common, 1986; Renihan & Renihan, 1984; Rosenholtz, 1985; Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981; Sweeney, 1982; Wilson, 1982) have established the school principal as "a critical incident leading to success" (Educational Research Service, 1983, p. 26). While a few writers (e.g, Clark et al., 1984; Rowan et al., 1983) have noted that "the interpretation that effective principals produce effective schools has yet to be substantiated" (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987, p. 3), this reservation is not widely shared.

With regard to specific attributes of effective leadership, a vast body of leadership research outside the realm of education has attempted to unearth desirable qualities of successful administrators. Trait theories of leadership were used with little success to identify distinctive personal qualities that are common among capable leaders; a review of research by Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) elicited only four reasonably prevalent traits: intelligence, motivation, maturity and a focus on people. The two-factor theories isolated consideration and initiating structure as the major dimensions of leadership; success in both was regarded as indicative of effective performance (Stogdill, 1974; Blake & Mouton, 1964, 1969). Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory further emphasized the relevance of situational factors to effective leadership, and this remains the dominant view. Other writers have since attempted to expand the array of leadership theories and elements. In an educational context, Knoop (1986), for example, recently proposed a Jungian approach to leadership based on psychological types. Pitner and Hocevar (1987, p. 110) examined the usefulness of Yukl's management behaviour categories for evaluating the performance of principals and found it superior to the "too simplistic" two-factor approach. Indeed, the 23 categories commended as a result of that study closely parallel the findings about administrative effectiveness arising from school effectiveness and organizational effectiveness research--two bodies of literature that provided bases for examining the effectiveness of principals in the present study.

Exploratory studies by educational researchers have identified a number of characteristics of effective principals. Bossert et al. (1982) condensed these into four primary dimensions of effectiveness: (a) emphases on formulation and achievement of goals; (b) coordination of programs, discipline, evaluation, staff development and other activities; (c) use of "human relations" skills to approve success and foster teachers' growth, morale and commitment; and (d) exercise of influence in instructional decision making.

With regard to goals, other commentators (e.g., Johnson & Snyder, 1985; Rosenholtz, 1985) have emphasized the collaborative nature of goal development; the principal therefore becomes an instigator of and guide for that process, and the activity itself provides a basis for commitment to the goals and further collegial work. This seems to surpass other views of the principal as merely commending goals to staff (Crisci et al., 1986; Pratt & Common, 1986; Sweeney, 1982).

The second category of behaviours recorded above encompasses a range of involvements that most writers have preferred to treat separately. Some (e.g., Sweeney, 1982) have emphasized the development and direction of progress toward achievement of school goals; others (e.g., Johnson & Snyder, 1985) have noted the importance of allocating staff and resources appropriately; others have remarked on recruitment of competent staff (Wilson, 1982) and on the benefit this can have for supervision (Rosenholtz, 1985). Evaluation of teachers has also emerged as a common attribute of effective principals (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981). Johnson and Snyder (1985, p. 2) added that, "in productive schools principals conduct frequent formal and informal observations to coach teachers in their development of instructional skills"; Rosenholtz (1985) concurred and emphasized the value of constructive feedback.

Effective principals also seem to be active in setting "a tone of order and purpose for the school as a whole" (Mackenzie, 1983, p. 11) and in fostering desirable attitudes among staff and students. According to some writers, this centres on showing concern for and interacting with students (Wilson, 1982), although most have focussed on the promotion of an atmosphere that is "orderly"--one that is "quiet, pleasant, and well maintained" (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981; Sweeney, 1982) and that maximizes time for learning (Mackenzie, 1983). There has been greater consensus about the principal's communication of performance expectations to staff and students (e.g., Little, 1982; Pratt & Common, 1986; Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981). According to Pratt and Common, principals' example of conscientious work and personally high standards filter through to teachers and students. Little's research was still more informative: she ascertained that principals of effective schools not only modelled desirable behaviours but fostered collegiality and experimentation by publicly announcing their expectations for collaborative and innovative work, approving and rewarding positive behaviour, defending innovative teachers against criticism, and initiating collaborative staff development programs at school. In support of this emphasis, Rosenholtz (1985, p. 367) observed that, "through the norms of collegiality, principals wield the power of peers' collective perception."

Some writers have supported other attributes of effective principals, such as open communication with teachers and support for professional development activities outside the school (Sweeney, 1982); expressions of interest in students' performance and teachers' work (Johnson, 1984); displays of confidence in the work of the school (Flanagan, 1983); and timely, appropriate decisions that reflect teachers' opinions wherever possible (Blase & Williams, 1987). Although they disapproved of efforts to identify universally appropriate leadership behaviours, Astuto and Clark (1986) commended the principal's encouragement of organizational commitment, professional autonomy, reflective work, and collaboration and experimentation in instruction.

Many investigators have founded their inquiries on "a basic premise" that "strong instructional leadership from principals will promote school effectiveness" (Murphy, Hallinger, Weil & Mitman, 1985, p. 144). Indeed, this dimension of effective leadership has become something of a preoccupation among researchers. Unfortunately, the notion of instructional leadership has been viewed inconsistently. To Murphy et al. (1985), the "instructional leadership functions" include the framing of school goals; development and promotion of high expectations and standards; assessment of the performance of students; "protection" of instructional time from interruptions; being knowledgeable about curriculum and instruction; promotion of a coordinated curriculum; support for professional growth; communication with staff; development of a consensus about goals and instructional matters; avoidance of conflicts; encouragement of participation in decision making; initiating and responding to change; and association with external agencies such as parents, central office personnel and local communities.

Daresh and Liu (1985), on the other hand, identified somewhat different instructional leadership strategies: provision for staff development, evaluation of teachers, "instructional support," acquisition of resources, maintenance of facilities and resolution of problems with students. Larsen's (1987) research about instructional leadership disclosed different attributes again. More recently, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) limited the instructional management functions to three: "defining the school mission"; supervising teachers and coordinating instruction; and fostering a climate conducive to learning. As Hallinger and Murphy (1987, p. 4) and others have now admitted, the notion of instructional leadership lacks clear and concrete definition. Moreover, the expansive views of "instructional leadership" summarized here clearly surpass the instructional domain. For this reason, the contribution of this research seems to be limited to general assertions, such as Mackenzie's (1983) comment that solicited instructional assistance is preferable to intervention.

A final focus of effectiveness research on the principalship has been the identification of desirable personal attributes. Following Peters and Waterman (1982), Duignan (1985, p. 9) argued that an effective principal is "both a visionary and 'doer,' giving example through action." William Greenfield (1986, p. 11) supported the need for vision ("moral imagination") and noted also the importance of the principal's "interpersonal competence." Firestone and Wilson (1987, p. 20) commended a democratic and supportive style of leadership for such loosely coupled systems as schools. A review of research by Bossert et al. (1982, p. 52) also highlighted women principals as more effective; research had revealed women to be more communicative, harder working, more innovative, more democratic and "more preferred by teachers and superiors than men."

While the dimensions of effective principalship might appear from this review to be clear and generally applicable, two cautionary observations are important. First, as Good and Brophy (1986) have indicated, there remains a paucity of literature about behaviours which might comprise effective leadership; this matter has not been sufficiently well researched to permit assertions to be made with confidence. Second, there is a particular danger of concluding from the foregoing array of common attributes that a uniform style of school leadership is best for all situations. A recent *UCEA Review* (1986, p. 3) statement, however, cautioned against such an assumption:

> Teachers are motivated by different administrative styles. Some teachers want specific direction; others work best with more flexibility. There is no best style for all circumstances. The effective schools literature should not be interpreted to mean a particular management style is best.

Such a view has gained recent support among some educational writers (e.g., W. Greenfield, 1986; Pitner, 1987) and is consistent with contingency views of leadership.

Constraints on the Effectiveness of Schools and Principals

Constraining influences on effectiveness are important but not well known. As Eastcott et al. (1974, p. 1) observed, identification of constraints on administrative behaviour provides a new perspective on the role, assists in decision making, helps to minimize inappropriate action and conflict, and may afford opportunities for overcoming the limiting effects of those influential factors. The same could be said of constraints on teachers and others associated with the educational enterprise. It is surprising, then, that the school effectiveness literature has devoted so little attention to this matter. Indeed, the troublesome aspects to which isolated writers have referred seem to be of consequence, and they warrant consideration.

Rehihan and Renihan (1984) identified four "potent threats" to the effectiveness of schools. They referred, first, to a trend toward displacement of "student-centred" goals by "software-centred" goals in education; recent preoccupation with facilities and standardized educational programs and objectives has tended to depersonalize education. Second, "a climate of territorialism" may impede performance in many schools: competing interests of organizational constituencies cause "power games" and inhibit cooperation. Third, educators' attitudes and behaviours are confined by tradition, so they neglect their roles in initiating educational change and improvement. Poor quality leadership sometimes represents a fourth barrier to school effectiveness.

With regard to the leadership of principals, Murphy (1987) recently outlined a range of barriers that can prejudice effective performance. Many principals are constrained by inadequate preparation for leadership in curriculum and instruction, owing to an excessive emphasis of higher education programs on administration and theoretical concerns; this leads school administrators to direct most attention to areas where their knowledge is greatest. A second problem arises out of the nature of curriculum and instruction themselves: these matters do not demand urgent attention at school and can therefore be deferred. Moreover, the connection between instruction and student learning is not well understood and, in higher education programs, educational administrators are encouraged to regard curriculum and instruction as non-administrative matters. Third, principals are reticent about intervening in the instructional realm, for teachers may construe this as imposing on their professional independence; and this responsibility can be readily avoided in favour of ensuring teachers' cooperation. This argument is consistent with Purkey and Smith's (1983) assertion that loose coupling of schools militates against strong administrative leadership--a matter which they cited as one of the neglected areas of school effectiveness research.

In Murphy's view, school districts also give principals little incentive to engage in instructional leadership; instead, principals tend to be evaluated on their ability to maintain order and deal with parental and community concerns. Four aspects of the principalship also inhibit instructional leadership: the principal's burdensome responsibilities to a multiplicity of constituencies; the reactive, fragmented and time-consuming nature of the principal's work day; teachers' discouragement of intervention by principals; and growing unionism of teachers with attendant loss of control by principals. Moreover, the literature offers little assistance in defining the instructional leadership role itself.

Sweeney (1982, p. 361) emphasized the constraining effect of "paperwork and administrative demands" on the performance of principals; with such burdens on time, principals are often unable to "find the time to visit classroom teachers and work with them." Bossert et al. (1982) and Good and Brophy (1986) further noted that the quality of principals' work is affected by informal peer networks, the organization's culture, district financing, parental pressures and student misbehaviour.

Criticisms of Effective Schools Research

In 1983, Bickel (p. 4) arrived at an assessment of the effective schools research that is still widely held:

> While lists may vary considerably in detail, features such as strong instructional leadership, an orderly school climate, high expectations, emphasis on basic instructional skills, and frequent monitoring of instructional progress, have become something like the five steps to effective schooling. These features have an intuitive appeal to most individuals knowledgeable about schools and their organizational and social structures.

Purkey and Smith (1983) likewise noted that these "simple recipes for school improvement" have "captured educators' and the public's fancy." Mackenzie (1983, p. 7) added that this "sudden consensus, which has been embraced with almost audible gasps of relief by reviewer after reviewer" has led to a widespread feeling within the educational research community that "active and committed educational leaders can indeed do something about the conditions for achievement in . . . schools." Moreover, as Mackenzie described it, this continually reinforcing pattern of common research findings has led many school effectiveness researchers to "move with perhaps unseemly haste to translate research findings into prescriptions for action."

Such fervent support for the effective schools movement, however, has not gone unchallenged. A growing number of observers have offered salutary cautions about the limited contribution of school effectiveness research to the development of effectiveness criteria and improvement of schools. The major shortcomings are summarized below.

Research designs and the validity of resultant findings and conclusions have been questioned on a number of grounds: (a) excessive dependence on basic skills achievement tests as the narrow indicators of effectiveness (Clark et al., 1984; Fullan, 1985; Good & Brophy, 1986; W. Greenfield, 1986; Purkey & Smith, 1982, 1983; Rowan et al., 1983); (b) inattention to causes of effectiveness (Good & Brophy, 1986; Rowan et al., 1983) and unwarranted assumptions about causality (Clark et al, 1984); (c) elimination of subtle individual differences among and within schools because of aggregation of data and abstraction to simple statements of criteria (Good & Brophy, 1986; Rowan et al., 1983; Witte & Walsh, 1987); (d) an unfounded assumption that findings from small samples of highly effective ("outlier"), predominantly urban, elementary schools in the United States are generalizable to other schools and settings (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rowan et al., 1983; Witte & Walsh, 1987); (e) over-reliance upon case study methods (Witte & Walsh, 1987) that have often produced mere "anecdotal descriptions" (Clark et al., 1984, p. 61); and (f) a lack of longitudinal investigation to assess long-term effectiveness (Clark et al., 1984; Purkey & Smith, 1983). In the former regard, Rowan et al. likened the effective schools studies with the input-output analyses whose deficiencies they had been conducted to remedy; Good and Brophy listed stimulation of students' awareness and reflection as other important educational goals; and the exceptional study by Rutter et al. (1979) drew attention to and examined other educational outcomes (attendance, behaviour and delinquency).

Equally compelling are three interrelated, more fundamental criticisms of this field of inquiry. Clark et al. (1984, p. 62) highlighted a dangerous effect of intuitively reasonable ideas and mutually confirming findings shaping and limiting subsequent research: the school effectiveness researcher can easily be biased by "what the researcher believes in enough to be able to see." In this light, Good and Brophy's (1986) recommendation for greater attention to the currently untapped perspectives of teachers and students is salutary. Finn (1987) likewise argued for an expansion of school effectiveness research to include the views of all important interest groups, some of which might exhibit disparate, competing--and hence disconfirming--goals and perceptions of effectiveness.

A small number of observers have recently asserted an associated concern about the simplistic and largely atheoretical approaches to effectiveness used by educational researchers. Murphy, Hallinger and Mitman (1983) criticized effective schools researchers for failing to employ theoretical models as guides to investigation. Finn (1987) entreated researchers to attend to effectiveness dimensions established by organizational effectiveness inquiry in other disciplines. Hopkirk (1987, p. 6) linked these two views in an incisive attack on school effectiveness research. He remarked that "the effective schools research claims to be an emerging field and does not attach itself to the literature on organizational effectiveness that has been developed over the years." Quoting Steers's early conclusion that "the effectiveness construct is so complex as to defy simple attempts at model development," Hopkirk added, "The current movement in education appears to have overcome this problem. One might wonder by what slight of hand this might have been accomplished." These observations led him to categorize the study of school effectiveness as "a questionable field of research."

One obvious and crucial outcome of this inattention to comprehensive model development and the literature on organizational effectiveness has been a pervasive neglect of the external environment in studies of school effectiveness; and the prevailing pattern of treating schools as closed systems is beginning to attract criticism. Purkey and Smith (1983), for example, commented on a preoccupation with the classroom and school to the exclusion of environmental influences; Mackenzie (1983, p. 11) noted that "parent contact would seem to have obvious importance," although he acknowledged a lack of research evidence in this regard; Rosenholtz (1985, p. 330) included among the responsibilities of effective principalship "buffer[ing] the technical core" from outside intervention and constraint.

Furthermore, ample evidence of environmental impact is available outside the effective schools research literature. By way of example, the most outstanding finding of early input-output analyses was the overwhelming effect of home background, socio-economic status and the peer group--environmental factors--on educational attainment. Payne's (1987) review of literature about the principalship led to a conclusion that the principal acts as a pivotal contact for parents, central office personnel and other external agencies, responds to external influences and expectations, and "buffers" (shields) the school from undesirable extra-organizational imposition. Payne's study in Alberta further revealed that parents exert a substantial influence on administration and operation--and so also the effectiveness--of schools. Murphy and Hallinger's (1986) study ascertained that superintendents and other officials at the central office level impose upon the effectiveness of schools through selection, socialization, supervision and sanctioning of principals, as well as through influence on school goals, resource allocation and disciplinary codes. In this light, it seems reasonable to add that provincial policy makers and administrators and local and wider community influences might also be significant.

Despite this criticism and evidence, school effectiveness writers and researchers--with a few noteworthy exceptions (e.g, Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Miskel, 1982b; Ratsoy, 1983)--have persistently ignored the organizational effectiveness literature, associated theoretical models, and the environmental elements that such attention would have led them to consider. A range of conceptual models provide an appropriate basis for briefly examining this literature.

Theoretical Models of Organizational Effectiveness

Two major theoretical perspectives have been developed to judge the effectiveness of business enterprises, public instrumentalities, hospitals and other organizations: the goal model and systems model (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985), also known as the closed/rational and open systems perspectives (Mott, 1972). The former focusses upon achievement of organizational goals: the latter "defines effectiveness in terms of the ability of the organization to maintain internal consistency, to develop judicious resource distribution over a variety of coping mechanisms, and to exploit its environments in the acquisition of scarce resources" (Ratsoy, 1983, p. 2). Marshall (1980) noted that a third, "multiple criterion" approach subsumes both the goals and open systems views, and Cameron (1986a, p. 542) further alluded to the "internal processes model," the "strategic constituencies model," the "competing values model," the "legitimacy model," the "fault-driven model," the "high performing systems model" and his own view of "effectiveness as paradox" as other important perspectives on the construct of effectiveness for specific kinds of organizations. Within the discipline of education, program evaluation models have also been concerned with organizational effectiveness (Marshall, 1980). The major perspectives may contribute substantially to understanding of organizational effectiveness in schools.

Based on Cameron's (1986a) explication of the strengths of the various models, the emphases of organizational researchers in education (e.g., Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Miskel, 1982b) and the orientation of the researcher (see Chapter 3), the goal and systems models of effectiveness were regarded as especially appropriate for studying school organizations and they are given precedence in the following review.

The goal model. Traditionally, organizations have been viewed as "closed" or "rational" systems in which behaviour is largely predictable and is mechanistically directed toward attainment of predetermined organization goals (Scott, 1987). As Seashore (1983, p. 59) explained, goals tend to be viewed as those of "key influentials" such as administrators and controlling authorities in the environment. The model assumes that goals are known, understood and accepted by participants, and that they guide organizational behaviour.

The goal model, however, has encountered considerable criticism. Miskel (1982b) summarized five fundamental shortcomings which led Hoy and Ferguson (1985, p. 119) to regard a goals approach as insufficient for school effectiveness investigation: (a) organizations usually possess multiple, competing and unexpressed goals; (b) priority is usually accorded to the readily identifiable goals of administrators, while goals of other constituencies tend to be neglected; (c) goals change over time, and revised goals tend to be overlooked; (d) official goals may be sufficiently abstract to defy accurate definition and appraisal, and they may provide little indication of the reality of organizational intents; and (e) goal statements may not always direct behaviour, even if they justify it in retrospect. Other authors have also alluded to the ambiguity of organizational goals (e.g., Cameron & Whetten, 1983b) and the likelihood that stated goals and organizational behaviour will diverge (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Mott, 1972).

One important deficiency of closed system views of organizations and effectiveness is their neglect of environmental interaction and influence (Mott, 1972). This aspect seems to be vital not only in business contexts but in educational organizations such as schools. Griffiths (1987), for example, concluded from a review of research that, "as we view top executives of corporations, the universities, and the public schools . . . there is one change aspect of the job that is common to all: the growing trend towards working outside the organization." Kratzmann, Byrne and Worth (1980) also emphasized the impact of parents and central office personnel upon the work of schools.

Largely owing to the abstract, incompatible and fluid nature of espoused and internalized goals, "it is currently fashionable to be critical of the goal model" (Seashore, 1983, p. 59). Nevertheless, the model's simplicity and attention to organizational intents are advantageous.

The systems perspective. Natural systems and open systems models offer a different view of organizations and organizational effectiveness. Systems views of effectiveness acknowledge a need for organizational adaptation, survival and growth in an organic environment; and structure and technology are seen as effective only if they suit the current demands of various constituencies (Hasenfeld, 1983; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Mott, 1972). As a result, inputs, processes, products and exchanges with the environment are all treated as important features of effectiveness and, as Mott noted, adaptiveness becomes a critical determinant of effectiveness.

According to Hoy and Ferguson (1985) and Miskel (1982b), a major deficiency of this approach for schools is its emphasis on inputs at the expense of outputs; consequently, effectiveness appraisal tends to neglect the quality of educational or other outcomes. Hasenfeld (1983, p. 207) further highlighted a potential for "practically every organizational activity [to] serve as a criterion of effectiveness" and pointed to other theorists' lists of as many as thirty factors to support this contention. In addition, a normative judgement must be made about the desirability of each organizational characteristic; for example, "does a high degree of staff satisfaction indeed represent effectiveness?" At the same time, it may be argued that only extensive views can capture all the important dimensions of effectiveness; and--in theory, at least--the norms which determine the direction of effectiveness may be widely shared by organizational constituents.

The political economy perspective. Hasenfeld's (1983) "political economy perspective" judges organizational effectiveness according to an organization's capacity to satisfy the expectations of those who control access to resources. The concentration of political power in an organization, the degree of goal consensus and the quantifiability of outputs all influence organizational behaviour and thus also the priorities which should be awarded to various effectiveness criteria.

The most valuable feature of this view is that it alerts effectiveness researchers and evaluators to the influence of various constituencies' competing interests and goals on the direction and quality of organizational activity.

Multiple models. Regarding goals and system components as complementary, many theorists and researchers have developed comprehensive conceptualizations for examining effectiveness in educational and other organizations. Some of these models deserve attention.

Writing in the educational domain, Hoy and Ferguson (1985) and Miskel (1982b) saw little difficulty in absorbing goals and systems elements in a single theoretical framework, for they regarded system processes as implicitly goal-directed. Their model of school effectiveness comprises four effectiveness dimensions: adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency. Hoy and Ferguson were satisfied that these four levels adequately represent the dimensions of organizational effectiveness; they highlighted its congruence with Mott's (1972) and other earlier conceptualizations, and the internal consistency of their own findings gave them confidence about its appropriateness for probing the effectiveness of schools.

While Hoy and Ferguson's research served as an initial test of specific school-level indicators--administrative and instructional innovation, academic achievement, staff cohesiveness and organizational commitment--Miskel's earlier theoretical formulation incorporated a wider range of variables. He further highlighted the complicating influences of time, organizational level and constituency perspective on each aspect of a full appraisal.

Concerned to surpass the "limited views" of earlier effectiveness models, Steers (1977) integrated environmental, organizational, individual and managerial factors as organizational effectiveness variables. Steers's "process model" is indicative of a desire among some effectiveness theorists to be all-encompassing about organizational effectiveness; this is perhaps its most valuable attribute. Steers recognized multiple, competing and changing goals as well as system and environmental factors, and he admitted that individual and group behaviour of participants affects organizational performance. One shortcoming of such a "comprehensive catalogue" (Ratsoy, 1983, p. 2) of effectiveness variables, however, is its failure to integrate effectiveness criteria in any hierarchical or causal framework.

Ratsoy's "frying pan" model. Ratsoy's (1983) "frying pan" model and accompanying checklist of organizational effectiveness variables is also comprehensive. Drawing upon a variety of approaches to the study of effectiveness, this model was proposed as a basis for selecting effectiveness criteria for subsequent analyses. It was presented as a taxonomy of influential criteria, ranging from (a) the unavoidable impact of environmental circumstances upon organizational inputs and function, through (b) characteristics of personnel and organizational structure, climate and process, (c) outcomes such as satisfaction, absenteeism and adaptability, to (d) organizational goals. As Ratsoy (1983, p. 4) acknowledged, "there is a cumulative effect upon the goals of the organization as one moves from the variables in the external environment through the concentric rings depicting the sets of organizational and personnel variables."

One implication of each of these multiple models is the view that any attempt to appraise the effectiveness of an educational organization would be inadequate if it focussed exclusively on either goals or system variables. Even if goals can be measured--and this is problematic in the case of schools and other human service organizations--full understanding and explanation of success or failure demands also an assessment of the influential input, process, environmental and other outcome variables. As Ratsoy's framework further emphasizes, all elements also have interactive effects. For this reason an organization's structure, for example, will need to be judged for effectiveness in the light of its suitability for the turbulent, influential or passive organizational environment.

Evaluation models. Educational literature on evaluation also includes similarly comprehensive models for theorizing about and appraising effectiveness. Unlike the organizational effectiveness literature, evaluation theory has developed independently in an educational setting (Marshall, 1980).

Two decades ago, Stake (1967) incorporated multiple dimensions into a systematic and wide-ranging approach to educational appraisal. Stake's "countenance model" takes into account background ("antecedent"), process ("transactions") and "outcome" elements of an educational program. Similarly, Stufflebeam's (1971) "C.I.P.P." model attends to the organizational "context" (setting and goals), "input," "process" and "product." While a number of other important evaluation approaches have also emerged, most are confined to goal assessment, objectivity of appraisers, contextual meanings, program strengths and weaknesses and methodological concerns; they therefore have little to add to theoretical understanding of organizational effectiveness.

The most outstanding feature of the two long-established evaluation models is that, as with the multifaceted organizational effectiveness models, they emphasize expansive appraisal based on "a wide range of information" (Nevo, 1983, p. 120). As Nevo's ten "state of the art . . . in evaluation" questions attest, these and other educational evaluation models incorporate multiple measures of multiple outcome and systems criteria in terms of the viewpoints of multiple participants and external audiences.

In concluding this examination of organization effectiveness models, it is important to add two cautions. First, Cameron (1986a) emphasized the incompleteness of every effectiveness model and its underlying organizational metaphor; each contributes only partially to an understanding of organizational effectiveness. This may explain a preference among the foregoing organizational effectiveness researchers for multiple models. Seashore's (1983) comment about the cumulative benefit of alternative perspectives, however, also helps to place the choice among models in perspective: though necessarily incomplete, each model of effectiveness can supplement and cross reference others, collectively adding to understanding of effectiveness through different theoretical and constituency perspectives and providing validation through triangulation. For this reason, no effectiveness model or associated appraisal need attempt to be all-encompassing. Ultimately, as Cameron and Whetten (1983b) observed, a preference for a model must depend on the individual investigator's intents, needs and conceptualization of organizations.

Second, organizational effectiveness theorists have encountered considerable criticism. Goodman, Atkin and Schoorman (1983, p. 171) listed four main limitations: "(a) the construct space of OE is never carefully delineated; (b) the relationship between indicators and OE is not examined; (c) most outcome [conventional] approaches do not distinguish between determinants and indicators; and (d) the time frame for the indicators is not specified." Moreover, they saw the organizational effectiveness construct as inherently value laden. Cameron (1986b, p. 106) added that "the criteria of effectiveness have often been arbitrarily selected . . . and the major factors that indicate or predict effectiveness have not been specified."

At the same time, the literature includes many potential criteria which may have utility for effectiveness appraisals in schools. Acknowledging that much of this discussion has been premised on and necessarily limited by open systems views of organizations, many important criteria have been advanced. Moreover, accepting Cameron's (1986a, p. 541) assertion that "the basic problems surrounding organizational effectiveness are not theoretical problems [but] criteria problems," contributions in this area need to be considered.

Organizational Effectiveness Criteria

With regard to identification of leading attributes of effectiveness and associated criteria, organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness studies have been pursued in two markedly different ways. The first, favoured by researchers such as Peters and Waterman (1982) and a host of school effectiveness investigators, has involved identification of distinctive characteristics that are common to patently successful organizations. Morgan (1986, p. 59) outlined this approach: "If we focus on successful organizations, their specieslike character becomes much clearer. For successful organizations seem to share distinctive characteristics that are appropriate for dealing with their environment." Researchers have therefore tended to study organizations that are widely perceived to be effective. As noted earlier, in schools and many other human service organizations goals--the usual and most convenient guide to success--are problematic; hence, even the initial identification of organizations for study is subject to error. Additional deficiencies of this approach have already been recorded.

More important for the present discussion, however, is some educational writers' adoption of Peters and Waterman's prescriptions for success as criteria for judging the effectiveness of schools (e.g., Clark et al., 1984; Duignan, 1985). Two problems arise in that connection. First, most of the organizations studied by Peters and Waterman were "innovative, market-driven, operating in dynamic environments" (Morgan, 1986, p. 59); and they were business enterprises. Application of such formulae for success in one organizational context to understand effectiveness and advise practitioners in another should be regarded as, at best, hazardous. A second limitation resides in that study itself. As Griffiths (1987) and other commentators have noted, Peters and Waterman's study paid considerable attention to cultural aspects within the organizations of concern, but it virtually ignored the contextual factors that necessarily impose on organizational attitudes and behaviour.

As Morgan (1986) indicated, the second means of eliciting effectiveness criteria is by asking organization members to specify the characteristics that they believe to be important for judging effectiveness. One limitation of this approach is the potential for individuals who lack experience of highly successful organizations to speculate about effectiveness criteria. Even so, this strategy has been widely used and has resulted in a comprehensive array of organizational effectiveness criteria; these warrant attention.

The dominant view among writers in the field (e.g., Cameron & Whetten, 1983b; Scott, 1987; Steers, 1977) is that organizational effectiveness should be appraised according to multiple criteria. Such a view accords with the multiple dimensions of the organizational effectiveness construct explicated in the range of theoretical models already considered. Recognizing the inherent limitations of each effectiveness model and the particularly narrow focus of most school effectiveness studies, it is appropriate to examine possible organizational effectiveness criteria in the context of an expansive theoretical framework. To this end, the multiple models were favoured; and, owing to its apparent comprehensiveness, respect for authoritative opinion and taxonomic arrangement, Ratsoy's (1983) formulation was chosen as a basis for structuring this discussion.

Goals. As the goal model indicates, organizational goals are fundamental to effectiveness. In this regard, Steers's (1977, p. 5) definition of goals--as a "desired state of affairs that organizations attempt to realize"--and distinction between "official" and "operative" goals are helpful. Official goals represent formal, abstract expressions of organizational intent--frequently the objectives and expectations of administrators and/or external agencies. An obvious example of official goals for schools is achievement of students in mathematics or reading. Operative goals, which may not be overtly specified, "reflect actual educational practice" (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985, p. 119). Organization members possess personal and group goals which provide a purpose and focus for work, psychological security, a reference point with which to identify, and feelings of accomplishment when achieved. As Steers (1977) noted, divergent goals of organizational constituencies can impede organizational performance. Other writers (e.g., Scott, 1987), however, have also emphasized the inevitability of and need to recognize differing goals of various constituencies in assessments of effectiveness. In schools, for example, teachers may desire personal satisfaction and career advancement, administrators may seek control and fulfilment, and students and the community may prize the acquisition of academic knowledge and opportunities for employment. Each perspective, then, may demand different effectiveness criteria. Cameron & Whetten (1983b) considered effectiveness to hinge partly upon the degree to which conflicting environmental, administrative, group and individual intents can be made merely "compatible." Certainly, the multiple dimensions of organization goals cannot be overlooked.

Other outcomes. Ratsoy (1983) distinguished goals--intentions which direct organizational behaviour--from other outcomes such as satisfaction, absenteeism and adaptability. The latter outcomes may arise either intentionally or incidentally in the course of organizational events. With regard to adaptability, the organizational change literature has highlighted the powerful impact of the external environment, organizational growth and internal stresses on structure, technology and personnel (e.g., Hanson, 1979; Hodge & Anthony, 1984; Michael, 1982). Successful organizations are able to observe, forecast and respond to environmental change, initiate change, overcome internal inertia and active resistance to change and, where necessary, resist detrimental change. According to Little's (1981) study, one of the most important effectiveness criteria for schools is a staff-wide acceptance of innovation as a professional responsibility. As Mott (1972, pp. 18-19) indicated, adaptability also requires organization members to "stay abreast of new technologies and methods" and to be "flexible"--able to deal with sudden, unpredictable overloads of work.

Administrators have also emerged as central to adaptability. Educational research has highlighted the need for administrative support for changing instructional technology (Fullan, 1985; Johnson, 1984; Little, 1981); other writers (e.g., Schneider, 1983; Schreiber, 1983) have emphasized careful selection and placement of innovative, imaginative staff members.

Two facets of organizational withdrawal--absenteeism and turnover--also provide guides to effectiveness (Steers, 1977). An outcome of low attachment, turnover frequently necessitates employment of more administrators and increases organizational structure. High absenteeism and turnover can constrain the cohesiveness of work groups within an organization; productivity and work satisfaction may suffer as a result.

Personnel characteristics. Effectiveness in organizations such as schools depends heavily upon the work behaviour of members. Individuals comprise the organization structure, use the technology and respond to the environment. "Organizational attachment, or the extent to which employees identify with their employer" (Steers, 1977, p. 114), is one important attribute of participants which bears upon effectiveness. Attachment influences absenteeism and turnover (Ratsoy, 1983) and has been associated with job satisfaction (Steers, 1977). A significant and desirable extension of attachment is organizational "commitment," which involves not only identification with the organization but enthusiasm for work and a personal belief in the organization's goals. Commitment is reflected in attendance and retention of employees, job involvement and concerted effort. Further to attachment and commitment, high quality "job performance" is an obvious element of effectiveness. Performance is dependent upon members' personal characteristics (e.g., professionalism, academic knowledge and innovativeness of teachers), understanding of assigned tasks ("role clarity") and motivation.

As noted earlier, much of the responsibility for eliciting participants' commitment and effective performance seems to rest with an organization's leaders. Dimensions of leadership effectiveness drawn from educational research have already been mentioned. Based upon organizational theory, however, Steers (1977) developed six useful categories of effective administrative behaviour: (a) ensuring clear specification of goals; (b) coordinating resources and personnel to achieve goals; (c) motivating high performance throughout the organization, by selecting, assigning, training and sanctioning staff appropriately; (d) fostering open communication throughout the organization; (e) making timely, acceptable and appropriate decisions and exercising leadership in coordinating activities, resolving organizational conflict, maintaining stable membership and promoting job satisfaction of employees; and (f) promoting adaptation and innovation.

Organizational variables. According to Ratsoy (1983), organization structure, technology and climate may be the key determinants of organizational effectiveness. Organization structure, manifested through variables such as decentralization, specialization, formalization, span of control and organization size (Hall, 1982; Sousa & Hoy, 1981), imposes upon organizational effectiveness in significant and differing ways. In very general terms, a highly bureaucratic structure seems to impinge upon members' responsibility, work variety and participation and so diminishes their job satisfaction, retention and attendance; whereas productivity may be improved by high specialization and appropriate use of centralization, formalization and work group size (Steers, 1977). Different "structural mixes" are necessary for high effectiveness in different settings; moreover, their effects on members' attitudes and performance can conflict.

Technology, or "the type of tasks being done" in an organization (Ratsoy, 1983, p. 5), may be appraised in terms of the suitability of instructional or production processes used, the knowledge required for the work, as well as the resources deployed. Technology and structure are interactive; structure should be adapted to suit the prevailing technology (Scott, 1987).

Organizational climate--which Hoy and Ferguson (1985, p. 123) labelled "integration"--refers to prevailing "attitudes, values, norms, and feelings employees have concerning the organization" (Steers, 1977, p. 103). Educational researchers and organization theorists alike have emphasized this dimension of effectiveness, but there remains much to be learned about its nature. Steers (p. 105) noted that a highly bureaucratic structure seems to generate "rigid, closed and threatening" perceptions about the work setting, whereas concern for employees and for participatory decision making may promote "achievement-oriented and trusting climates." Research about organizational technology has also distinguished the rule-directed, rigid climates accompanying routine tasks from the open, trusting, creative climates of dynamic work situations.

Environment. The role of the external environment in organizational effectiveness has attracted close attention. As Schreiber (1983, p. 251) explained, "the realistic interpretation of environmental information" together with a capacity to "question" current environmental expectations and foresee future opportunities makes "an important contribution to organizational effectiveness." Steers (1977) identified three components of the organizational environment: complexity, stability and uncertainty. Placid environments demand little interaction with and adjustment on the part of the organization: complex environments may impose severe legal, social or economic constraint and necessitate extensive boundary spanning activity and interorganizational contact by administrators and/or staff members. Turbulent environments seem to demand less organizational rigidity and more contact with organization members than environments which retain stable links with the organization. Steers noted that dynamic and complex environments tend to limit the availability of external information for organizational decision making, impede understanding of environmental influences on organizational action and limit knowledge of the implications of incorrect decisions. In each respect, environmental uncertainty impinges upon the effectiveness of an organization.

Boundary spanning and the development of interorganizational linkages are functions that often accrue to leaders. However, effectiveness may also be gauged according to other members who interact within the external environment, identify needs for change, and instigate organizational reform.

The organizational environment is now widely recognized as being vital to the effectiveness of schools. Kratzmann et al. (1980) for example, remarked about the susceptibility of schools to environmental turbulence (changing expectations and attitudes in the community) and they referred to numerous "dramatic changes in family life-styles, social attitudes and technology" that have already "had an enormous impact on schools" (p. 42). The school superintendent was also identified as a powerful force in school affairs: "On a wide range of issues, his views are often the decisive ones. His formal authority and informal power are normally such that he has been characterized as the 'irresistible voice' in administration" (p. 44).

The literature includes substantial and long-standing support for the foregoing "checklist" of organizational criteria, and implied in that writing is the view that organizations are effective to the extent that they perform successfully in all domains. As Cameron (1986a) has explained, however, many of these criteria constitute apparent contradictions, or "paradoxes." Indeed, Van de Ven (1983) regarded Peters and Waterman's (1982) identification of personal and organizational paradoxes as their most important contribution to understanding of organizational behaviour and performance. Examples of paradoxes in the context of schools might include adaptability to parental or central office expectations versus organizational stability; innovativeness and professional independence of staff at the expense of assertive leadership; and attainment of mutually acceptable goals versus satisfaction of multiple constituencies' educational, professional and personal interests. Sirotnik's (1985, p. 138) example is also helpful:

> in the same array of dimensions of effective schooling are the principles of academically engaged learning time, content coverage, and formative testing on the one hand and, on the other, things such as cooperative learning, group interaction, and personal interaction between teacher and students.

According to Cameron, these competing elements should not be viewed merely as conflicts to be resolved so that attainment can be maximized simultaneously in all directions; for highly effective performance in one dimension might necessarily impede performance in others. Moreover, such a linear view ignores the problem that optimal success in one dimension can be extreme and dysfunctional in itself. Astuto and Clark (1986, p. 59), who also noted this as an educational phenomenon, provided a useful example: "An organization with a sole emphasis on activity would be anarchic; a sole emphasis on stability would lead to moribundity." In this light, effectiveness may instead be reflected in a balance--between tight and loose coupling; adaptability and stability; goal-oriented performance and staff satisfaction; and so on.

At this juncture the views of these commentators differ. Sirotnik (p. 138) merely saw the problem as one of "enlightened and creative combining of multiple strategies to achieve a variety of school goals." Astuto and Clark (p. 59) alluded more specifically to the need for principals and other organizational participants to express regular "strategic preferences" between such organizational paradoxes as activity and stability, administrative facilitation and intervention, and independence and control. However, they commended effort at "*fostering one* [desirable features such as activity, flexibility and innovation] and *tolerating the other* [features such as stability, goal-directed planning, control and efficiency]." Cameron, on the other hand, regarded this matter of ongoing organizational choice as inherently more positive: maintenance of a healthy balance, or "creative tension," actually "creates flexibility and freedom" within the organization. Beyond unrealistic and unproductive reconciliation--or even tolerance--of contradiction, the process of dealing with opposing elements can be stimulating ("energizing") and, therefore, supportive of overall effectiveness. To the extent that paradoxes are a desirable feature of organizations, Cameron argued that effectiveness inquiries should include paradoxical criteria and should attend not only to statistical commonalities but also to distinctive and contrasting evidence.

Implications of the Effectiveness Literature for This Study

Most studies of school effectiveness have lacked a theoretical focus and have largely ignored an extant body of literature developed in neighbouring disciplines. Such strategies for research run the risk of merely confirming limited arrays of effectiveness attributes; outstanding examples of this apparent problem are a neglect of the organizational environment and a focus on measurable goals as guides to effectiveness. Consequently, this study was designed with an intent of incorporating as well as surpassing the "recipes" for success established by effective schools researchers: it was guided also by the expansive theoretical models and additional dimensions established in the broader field of organizational effectiveness.

The decision to rely upon a conceptual model of effectiveness also necessarily limits the scope of an inquiry. A model, however, can help a study to advance knowledge by locating its findings within the wider context of effectiveness research.

For this reason, an existing theoretical framework was chosen and adapted.

Most commonly, models of organizational effectiveness are premised upon systems views of organizations; such a view accorded with the orientation of the researcher. As to the selection, the "organizational" and "process" (culture) variables classification proposed by school effectiveness writers (e.g., Fullan, 1985; Purkey & Smith, 1983) was judged to be inexplicit and inferior to the more pervasive organizational effectiveness views. Multiple models of effectiveness now enjoy considerable support; and such frameworks suited this study's purpose of investigating a range of potential criteria. Moreover, the apparent reliance of schools upon the external environment made a multiple-constituency view of effectiveness appropriate. Ratsoy's plan, which drew upon organizational effectiveness theory in a way that was appropriate for educational research, included a helpful distinction between environmental inputs/outputs, organizational variables, personnel variables, "other outcomes" and goals. That framework was modified to accommodate the criteria and acknowledge the important thrusts in the school effectiveness literature. Attention was also paid to including "paradoxical" criteria of effectiveness (Cameron, 1986a) in order to explore the presence of effectiveness-enhancing contradictions within school organizations.

The resultant conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 2.3. The five effectiveness domains were regarded as having interactive but centrally directed effects on adjacent domains. The central level emphasizes the priority of student achievement as an educational goal; this accords with the focus of input-output and effective schools research. At the same time, school effectiveness studies have unduly emphasized standardized measures of attainment and have neglected other characteristics of effective learning. Organization theorists have stressed the multiple constituencies whose differing, often conflicting, goals are pursued in organizations, and other writers have highlighted the problematic nature of goals for human service organizations such as schools. It was therefore preferable to integrate the "goals" and other outcomes"

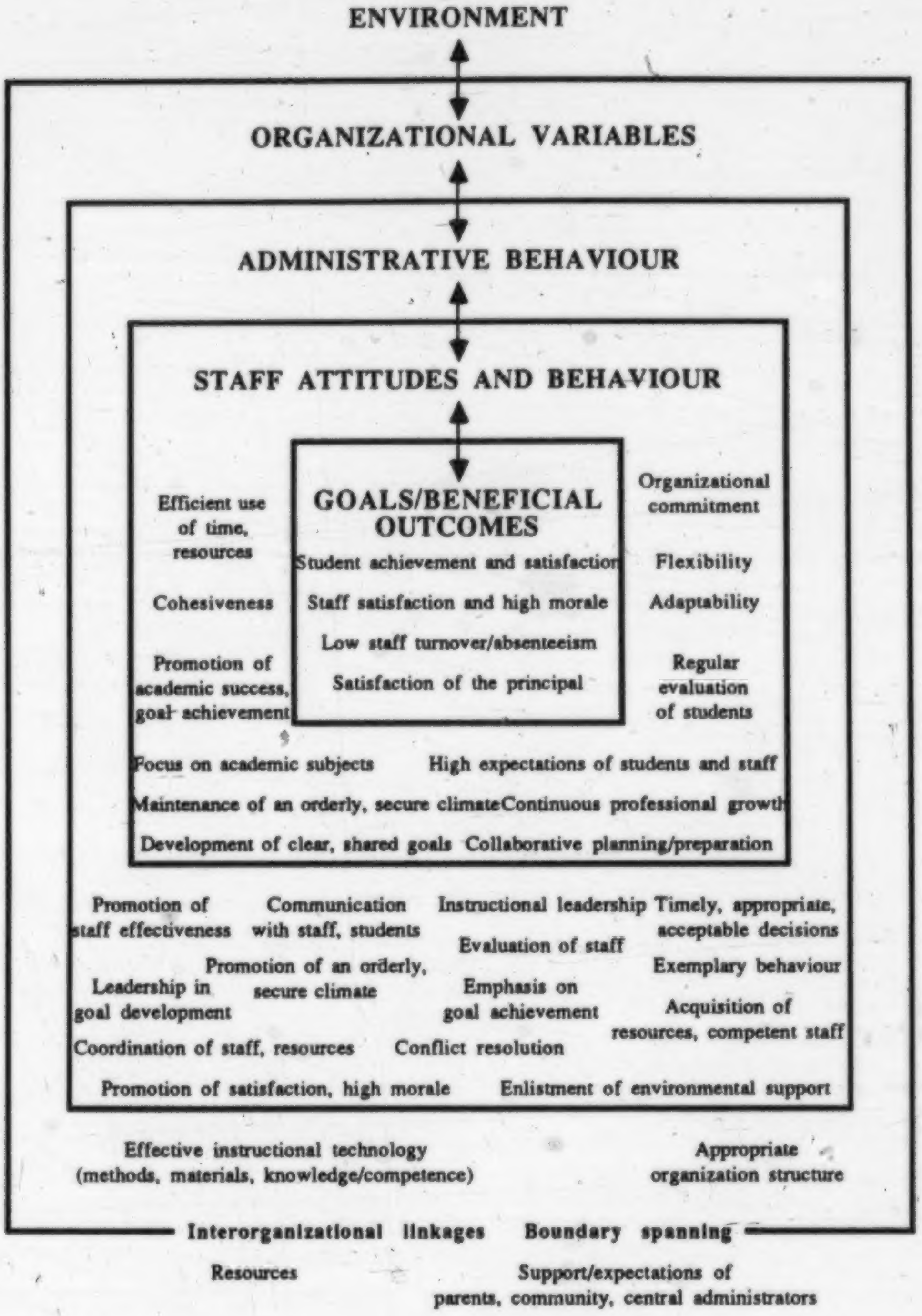
ENVIRONMENT
ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES
ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR
STAFF ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR
GOALS/BENEFICIAL OUTCOMES
Student achievement and satisfactio
Staff satisfaction and high morale
Low staff turnover/absenteeism
Satisfaction of the principal
Efficient use of time, resources
Cohesiveness
Promotion of academic success, goal achievement
Organizational commitment
Flexibility
Adaptability
Regular evaluation of students
Focus on academic subjects
High expectations of students and staff
aintenance of an orderly, secure climate
Continuous professional growt
Development of clear, shared goals
Collaborative planning/preparation
Promotion of staff effectiveness
Communication with staff, students
Instructional leadership
Timely, appropriate, acceptable decisions
Evaluation of staff
Promotion of an orderly, secure climate
Exemplary behaviour
Leadership in goal development
Emphasis on goal achievement
Acquisition of resources, competent staff
Coordination of staff, resources
Conflict resolution
Promotion of satisfaction, high morale
Enlistment of environmental support
Effective instructional technology (methods, materials, knowledge/competence)
Appropriate organization structure
Interorganizational linkages
Boundary spanning
Resources
Support/expectations of parents, community, central administrators

Figure 2.3

Conceptual Framework of School Effectiveness Variables classifications for this study.

Efforts in the school effectiveness literature to subsume variables of administrative and instructional personnel, structure, technology and climate into two "organizational" and "process" categories have failed to distinguish clearly among the elements of process. Ratsoy's classification isolated the structure and technology variables, although it neglected the apparently instrumental influence of principals on organizational culture/climate and attitudes of individual staff members. For this study, the two types of personnel variables were separated.

As Good and Brophy (1986, p. 589) asserted, "many accounts of effective schools devote too little attention to the role of students, parents, and citizens in establishing and maintaining good schools." This environmental aspect was regarded as important to the study, so the framework shown here records environmental interests as distinct bases for developing criteria. It acknowledged the need for interorganizational linkages and boundary-spanning activities by principals and staff, and capabilities for responding to environmental turbulence, enlisting support from community interests, and attracting qualified staff and other resources.

The literature had further implications for this study. Most of the effective schools research has been conducted in United States settings, in highly effective and ineffective schools, and in elementary schools; and few researchers seem to have elicited the perceptions of a variety of organizational constituencies. School effectiveness studies now need to expand these foci of investigation. To this end, the present research was planned to examine effectiveness in schools without regard for their status as typical or outlier schools; to investigate effectiveness in a new geographical location; to add a limited study of multiple constituencies' perceptions; to obtain practitioners' responses rather than relying on the observations of the researcher; and, in conjunction with two similar studies at different school levels, to span the three educational levels. These emphases are more in accordance with organizational effectiveness research.

Job Satisfaction and Effectiveness

The possibility of a relationship between satisfaction and effectiveness in organizations has attracted the attention of researchers in both fields of inquiry. Investigations of effectiveness have usually treated job satisfaction as no more than one of a large range of variables for consideration. Nevertheless, it is frequently included among the dimensions of effective organizational performance. The implication is that job satisfaction of employees, as a source and/or product of successful performance, serves as one indicator of the level of effectiveness.

More specific interest in such a relationship, however, has come from students of job satisfaction; this may be explained by an understandable desire among those researchers to establish the importance of job satisfaction as an area of inquiry. Hence, a major impetus for early job satisfaction research was the potential role of satisfaction in enhancing the productivity of workers (Gross & Etzioni, 1985; Landy & Trumbo, 1980; Lawler & Porter, 1976; Miskel et al., 1979). This interest was not without foundation, for the Western Electric studies seemed to show parallel increases in job satisfaction and productivity in the workplace, and two early reviews at least--one by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell, and the other by Vroom (see Lawler & Porter, 1976)--also offered optimistic accounts of research in this regard.

Indeed, some students of job satisfaction continue to pursue investigations on this basis. For example, Bean and Bradley (1986) established that, for female college students at least, academic performance and student satisfaction appear to be reciprocally influential. Nevertheless, these researchers acknowledged the likelihood of differences between students and employed workers. In a Canadian study of elementary teachers, Knoop and O'Reilly (1976) linked some JDI responses with those from their school performance instrument. Satisfaction with the work itself, with supervision and with co-workers correlated positively with school effectiveness, although satisfaction with pay and promotion did not. On the other hand, Knoop and O'Reilly admitted their inability to establish causality in such a connection. Kreis (1985, p. 6) also asserted that job dissatisfaction among teachers may have important implications for the quality of students' education: "The school system can . . . lose in terms of productivity: one response to lack of satisfaction is to drift into a state of obsolescence. . . . Dissatisfied teachers are less productive, less positive, and less often present to provide continuity of instruction." Kreis maintained that, in this way, job dissatisfaction can inhibit achievement of the school's major goal of educating pupils.

Despite this evidence, many writers (e.g., Brayfield & Crockett, 1970; Gross & Etzioni, 1985; Kelly, 1980; Scott & Mitchell, 1972) have disputed claims of any substantial and systematic link between job satisfaction and performance in many organizations. Summarizing this view, Organ (1977, p. 46) remarked that "the last nail has been driven into the coffin of the 'Human Relations' notion that satisfaction causes performance"; he added that "the beast was 'an unconscionable time adying." Not only were Gross and Etzioni critical of the methodological deficiencies of many studies of this issue, but they maintained that "being satisfied is almost a prescription for continuing to do what you are doing now." Scott and Mitchell also noted issues such as work conditions and friendships which satisfy individuals but which need not affect their performance. Hence, although Lawler and Porter (1976) showed Brayfield and Crockett's (1970) initial rejection of such a relationship to be "just too pessimistic" (Gruneberg, 1976, p. 205), Brayfield and Crockett's (p. 80) warning about rashly assuming the presence of a causal connection may still be pertinent today: "it is time to question the strategic and ethical merits of selling to industrial concerns an assumed relationship between employee attitudes and employee performance."

While the scepticism about satisfaction and performance remains, Organ (1977), Lawler and Porter (1976) and other scholars have noted that the original hypothesis of direct causality may have been too simplistic and, therefore, too easily discarded. If satisfaction and performance are related, intervening variables need to be considered.

Research in the context of schools has established that aspects of organizational structure, in particular, may exert a moderating influence. For example, Miskel et al. (1979) found from a study of United States teachers that formalized and complex organizational structures in schools were associated with perceptions of organizational effectiveness as well as low job satisfaction, and a study by Grassie and Carss (1973) linked organizational structure with teachers' job satisfaction and elements associated with effectiveness. Floyd (1985, p. iii) also posited "participation in institutional decision making" as a link between satisfaction and performance in "a wide variety of organizations."

A more obvious and fundamental connection between satisfaction and performance is via motivation. One view is that satisfaction motivates improved performance, which then generates further rewards, satisfaction and motivation in circular fashion. As Holdaway (1978b, p. 33) commented, Chase's research located satisfaction in a job satisfaction, morale, motivation, work and achievement "causal chain." Davis (1977, p. 75) also defended a circular relationship as "probably the most realistic assumption."

According to Landy and Trumbo (1980), a modern view is that satisfaction and performance, though not directly related, are both likely to be high where high performance is perceived as a means of achieving the individual's goals and where these goals are attained. In this sense, satisfaction and effectiveness may tend to move concurrently but not necessarily causally.

On the other hand, Gruneberg (1979, p. 127) maintained that "the more popular current theory suggests that productivity affects job satisfaction," although he admitted a lack of evidence to support that contention. Lawler (1973, p. 86) also noted in his discussion of organizational effectiveness that, "with respect to performance . . . behavior causes satisfaction." As to the extent of such a connection, Lawler and Porter (1976, p. 209) subsequently asserted the presence of "a low but consistent relationship"--one which they nevertheless admitted to be complex, still elusive and open to debate. Their support for a relationship was premised on their early research (Lawler & Porter, 1967) which established the intrinsic rewards (e.g., sense of achievement, and feelings of growth) and, to a lesser extent, extrinsic rewards (e.g., pay, promotions, status and security) derived from effective performance as intermediaries leading to enhanced job satisfaction.

Further to this debate is an observation that was equally significant for the present study. Little research attention has been paid to the nature and extent of a job satisfaction-effectiveness relationship in administrative settings in education; interest has been focussed mostly on non-managerial personnel in industrial settings. This matches a more general comment by Friesen et al. (1983) about a lack of research attention to job satisfaction in administrative settings in general.

Ryan (1988, p. 15) recently reported about two studies that were at least in the sphere of education; neither established a satisfaction-effectiveness relationship. On the other hand, Gunn and Holdaway's (1985, p. 3) research did demonstrate that principals' overall job satisfaction was "directly and substantially" related to perceptions of overall school effectiveness (r = .47), leadership effectiveness (r = .40) and overall influence of principals (r = . 32). Those researchers further identified the variable sense of accomplishment as a possible link between satisfaction and effectiveness--a link that lends support Lawler and Porter's (1967) earlier hypothesis and research finding in industry. Such contributions to the literature provided a basis for suspecting a satisfaction-performance connection also in elementary schools.

Implications of the Satisfaction-Effectiveness Literature for This Study

There continues to be uncertainty about an association between job satisfaction and effectiveness. Moreover, there is a dearth of research in this regard in the context of schools and educational administration. These findings from the review of literature justified an inquiry into the presence and nature of such a relationship for elementary school principals. Any such relationship might be identified only through intervening job facets and effectiveness dimensions; this matter also deserved attention. More particularly, the claim that intrinsic rewards moderate a work relationship between performance and satisfaction seemed to warrant scrutiny.

To guide this phase of the investigation, a conceptual framework of possible relationships was developed. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Summary

The following major generalizations emerged from this review of literature about perception theory, job satisfaction and the effectiveness of organizations and administrators.

The quality of perceptual data depends upon the capacity of respondents to identify and express their perceptions, the accuracy with which they perceive circumstances and events, and the extent to which a wide range of perceptual biases intervene in the perception process. Recognition of these problems resulted in a need to structure the study to minimize perceptual inaccuracy and identify perceptual differences on the part of respondents, and to account for perceptual influences on the researcher's work.

Consideration of alternative theories of job satisfaction provided a basis for developing a conceptual framework for studying job satisfaction. Facets which seemed to be closely associated with principals' job satisfaction included interaction with teachers and students, status and benefits of the position, involvement with district administrators, and working conditions. This review facilitated the development of instrumentation for the study and highlighted the need and scope for systematic accretion of knowledge in this area.

School effectiveness literature exhibited an array of criteria for judging schools; most noteworthy were the matters of high expectations, an orderly atmosphere, an academic emphasis, regular evaluation of students, and strong leadership by principals. Inadequacies in the usual focus of inquiry were also apparent; the organizational

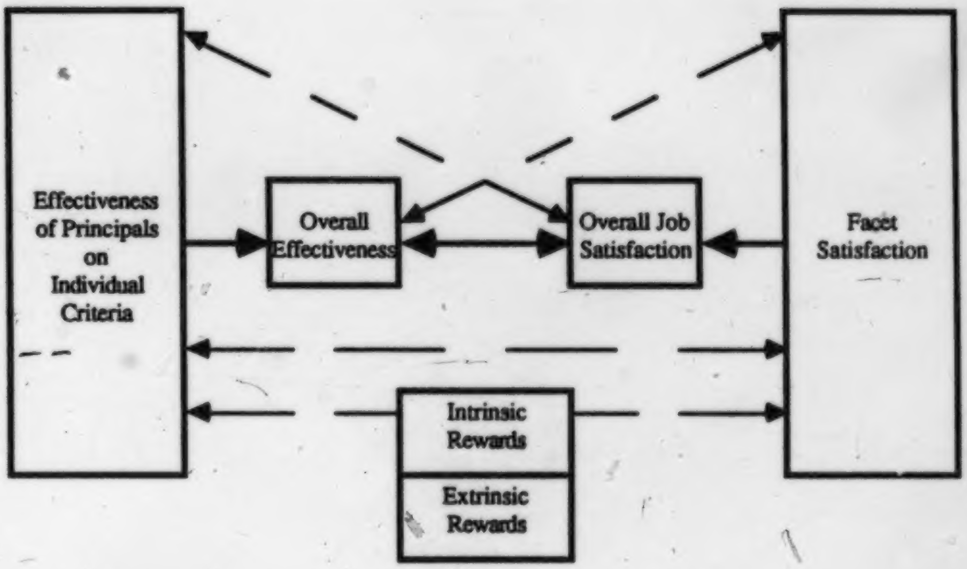
Effectiveness of Principals on Individual Criteria
Overall Effectiveness
Overall Job Satisfaction
Facet Satisfaction
Intrinsic Rewards
Extrinsic Rewards

Figure 2.4

Conceptual Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and Effectiveness environment, in particular, has received little attention. Literature premised on organizational effectiveness theory highlighted goals and system elements to include in an expansive conceptual framework for studying the effectiveness of schools and principals.

Principals appeared in the literature as key figures in school effectiveness. Major aspects of principalship effectiveness seemed to be an emphasis on goals, instructional leadership, and promotion of collegial work. Organizational effectiveness writers have also highlighted the leader's decision making and emphasis on open communication, adaptability and flexibility within the organization as other vital elements of effective leadership.

Finally, conflicting views about a possible satisfaction-effectiveness relationship, evidence about possible linking variables, and apparent inattention to this matter in educational and administrative research provided a justification and theoretical basis for examining this matter in the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design and methodological procedures for the study form the subject of this chapter. The overall research strategy is followed by a description of specific techniques used to collect, organize and analyze data. This discussion addresses implications of the literature for the methodology, sampling, gaining approval for the study, preliminary interviews and pilot tests, the development, distribution and returns of questionnaires, analysis and reporting of questionnaire and interview findings, and checks on the quality of research methods. The chapter then provides a defence of the research techniques employed and specifies the limitations and delimitations of the study. The chapter concludes with a statement of the researcher's orientation to the inquiry.

Research Design

To obtain information relating to the research questions, this study employed a descriptive design to investigate perceptions of elementary school principals' job satisfaction, school effectiveness and the effectiveness of principals. Data collection for the main study involved two stages: (a) distribution of questionnaires (about school effectiveness and principals' satisfaction and effectiveness) to a randomly selected sample of elementary school principals in Alberta, and administration of questionnaires (regarding effectiveness of schools and principals) to area superintendents and all certificated teachers associated with the schools in the sample which were within the two Edmonton school districts; and (b) follow-up interviews with ten principals in rural and urban Alberta. Prior to data collection, 14 persons who did not participate in those two stages of data collection were involved in preliminary interviews and pilot testing of interview techniques and instruments. Both strategies helped to ensure that all important issues were investigated, and pilot testing provided a check on the validity of instrumentation.

The Alberta-wide investigation of principals' perceptions constituted the major methodological focus for the study. Its purpose was to provide findings which could be generalized to the provincial population of pure elementary schools and which could in future be compared with findings from similar studies at other school levels in Alberta. The follow-up interviews added to knowledge about selected issues, although there could be no assurance about the representativeness of those perceptions.

The questionnaire requested principals to rate their overall job satisfaction and satisfaction on a substantial array of job facets (Research Questions 1 and 2). Statistical analysis identified the best predictors of overall job satisfaction (Question 3) as well as systematic differences based on specific organizational and personal characteristics (Question 5). The matter of principals' sense of accomplishment (Question 4) was explored both through questionnaire ratings and interviews. Respondents also rated the importance of each job facet for their overall satisfaction (Question 6). Interview questions elicited supporting, disconfirming and more detailed information which added to understanding of specific issues. The final aspect of job satisfaction examined was the theoretical issue of self-weighting of job satisfaction ratings (Question 7): facets with the most/least important questionnaire ratings and highest/lowest levels of satisfaction were compared to investigate the degree to which extreme ratings of importance and satisfaction coincided.

Questionnaires from principals also provided data concerning the effectiveness of schools and principals. Ratings of the overall effectiveness of schools and effectiveness on specified criteria provided information about levels of effectiveness in elementary schools (Questions 8 and 9) and the best predictors of global effectiveness (Question 10) were identified through regression analysis. Overall ratings were also compared according to selected attributes of principals and their schools (Question 11). Many important criteria for judging school effectiveness (Question 12) emerged from analysis of questionnaire responses. Interview questions were used for confirmation and to follow up on some of the outstanding aspects of school effectiveness. Open-ended questions in the questionnaire and interviews explored principals' perceptions of factors that impede effective performance in schools (Question 13). The research questions regarding the effectiveness of principals (Questions 14-19) were dealt with in the same manner.

Relationships among the three major constructs (Question 20) were investigated through correlation of questionnaire responses about overall job satisfaction, overall school effectiveness, and overall effectiveness of principals. Follow-up interviews also provided data about the extent and directions of influence. Statistical analysis of responses about specific work dimensions helped to identify more subtle connections (Questions 21-23).

The issue of perceptual consistency or disparity among organizational constituencies was dealt with in an exploratory way in one geographical region. Comparable data were gathered by questionnaire from the principals, teachers and area superintendents associated with schools in the sample which were in the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Separate School Districts. Ratings of the three constituencies were compared according to the effectiveness of schools (Question 24), the importance of various criteria for assessing the effectiveness of elementary schools (Question 25), the effectiveness of school principals (Question 27) and the importance of criteria for judging principals' effectiveness (Question 28). Open-ended responses by principals and area superintendents about factors constraining the effectiveness of schools (Question 26) were also compared. In addition, in one of these districts, the ratings on selected effectiveness criteria (Questions 24 & 27) were further compared with results from a school district survey of teachers, students and parents.

The regional selection for this exploratory study of multiple perspectives was imposed for three reasons. First, schools in the urban location involved had a substantial proportion of the "pure" types of elementary schools with which this study was concerned. Second, this region included the Edmonton Public School District, whose willingness to furnish data from its own study with students and parents added a valuable dimension to the comparisons which would otherwise have been difficult to include. Third, in an already large study, there was a need to limit the research design. The Edmonton area represented a convenient location for the researcher, particularly in view of the need to visit area superintendents and negotiate extensively with other school district personnel.

Methodology

As Kerlinger (1973, p. 696) remarked, "The function of the methodology . . . section of the research report, of course, is to tell the reader what was done to solve the problem." The following discussion proceeds with that intent.

Implications of the Review of Literature for the Methodology

The methodology of this study was influenced by the review of literature relating to perception, job satisfaction and effectiveness in organizations (Chapter 2). With regard to methodological implications, the examination of perception theory demonstrated the inescapable influence of perceptions of the respondents and researcher upon the study. Both influences highlighted a need to attend to validity, reliability and objectivity in the investigation.

The literature about job satisfaction also had particularly important implications for the methodological direction of this study. Rice's (1978) and Gunn's (1984) studies of school principals' satisfaction in Alberta were founded upon firm theoretical principles, and Gunn's study in particular provided a basis for comparative research in this area. At the same time, recognition of (a) Gunn's reliance upon a seven-year-old job satisfaction instrument--one that the review of literature nevertheless showed to be quite comprehensive--and of (b) the potentially distinctive nature of elementary schools prompted the researcher also to conduct an initial, exploratory investigation to generate variables to add to those already known. This phase of the research resulted in some modification of the questionnaire for the present study.

Research about job satisfaction in education has paid little attention to the importance of different job facets for satisfaction; this matter seemed to be a fruitful avenue of inquiry. There was also reason to investigate the claim by Lawler (1973), Locke (1969) and Wanous and Lawler (1972), which MacQueen and Ignatovich (1986, p. 42) recently supported following a study of United States teachers, that satisfaction ratings on various job facets are "already 'self-weighted' by the importance the facets hold for each respondent." The argument is that the more important job facets tend to be assigned the more extreme responses and can therefore be identified without recourse to ratings of importance. The dearth of research about this matter motivated attention to comparison of the strength of satisfaction and important ratings in this study; and dual importance and satisfaction scales in the job satisfaction instrument made these comparisons possible.

Sense of accomplishment also emerged from the literature review as a central but inherently complex matter. Most recent investigation had recorded it merely as a job facet, although early research was less clear about its association with overall job satisfaction. This motivated a dual approach to investigation in this study: questionnaire respondents were asked to rate sense of accomplishment as a job facet; and, to pursue the matter further, the initial and follow-up interviews included questions to explore in more detail the nature of the accomplishment phenomenon.

The methodology for this study was further informed by the literature about effectiveness of schools and other organizations. To escape the seemingly limiting perspectives of some educational researchers, the effectiveness instrument developed for this investigation needed to incorporate an expansive array of organizational dimensions. At the same time, cautions in the literature about the enormity and ambiguity of the effectiveness construct also indicated a need to delimit this study and to specify clearly the focus of inquiry. To this end, the delimitations section of this chapter documents this matter in detail. Cameron's (1986a, p. 551) proposals for examining the presence of effectiveness paradoxes were also taken seriously. Not only were apparently contradictory criteria incorporated as elements of the instruments, but individual perceptions and constraining influences were investigated and contrasts were reported in detail as evidence of the nature and presence of those potentially productive "simultaneous opposites."

Selection of Samples

The research design chosen for this study required extensive contact with principals and other personnel associated with schools in the Province of Alberta. For the survey of principals, a 20% random sample of 131 schools was chosen from the population of 654 pure elementary schools in Alberta; there was no reason to suspect a need for stratification. This sample not only indicated the schools that should be included in the questionnaire investigation but also identified the school-based personnel whose responses should not be contaminated by involving them in the preliminary inquiry.

Sampling of principals for the follow-up interviews was conducted on a different basis. The purpose of those interviews was to explore some outstanding findings and other important issues in greater depth than was possible with the questionnaire. Hence, an effort was made to include respondents representing a diversity of perspectives and circumstances. The large number of principals (45) who expressed interest in engaging in interviews allowed for selection of ten who exhibited personal and organizational characteristics that generally approximated those of the provincial random sample. (This matter of stratification is detailed in Chapter 4.) Although this strategy did not make the interview findings any more generalizable, it did provide some assurance that a wide range of situational issues and personal concerns were represented.

Approval to Conduct the Research

Details of the research were submitted first to an Ethics Review Committee of the Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta. The research was approved as suitable for school personnel in Alberta and in accordance with the university's ethical standards. In August 1986 permission to conduct the study was sought directly from the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Separate School District Superintendents (Appendix D). Both tendered their support for the research. These two school jurisdictions were approached first on account of the extensive participation required of their area superintendents, principals and teachers.

In accordance with the requirements of a Cooperative Activities Program agreement between the University of Alberta and four local jurisdictions including the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Separate School Districts, application was then made to the appropriate authority for permission to conduct the study. Approval was given by all jurisdictions. Edmonton Public School District, which had a policy of rotating principals among schools, excluded from the study those schools whose principals had been appointed to schools at the beginning of the current school year. The principals concerned were thought to be insufficiently familiar with their schools to be able to rate effectiveness accurately on the dimensions required. For the same reason the Edmonton Separate School District made newly appointed principals unavailable for the study. Other schools were randomly selected as substitutes for those withdrawn. In addition, two area superintendents in the Edmonton Public School District had recently been replaced, so the previous incumbents--who were more familiar with the effectiveness of principals and schools concerned--were approached for their perceptions about the effectiveness of schools for which they had been responsible. On 6 October 1986 superintendents of the remaining 51 jurisdictions were notified of the researcher's intention to approach principals for research purposes and were invited to commend the study to the principals concerned (Appendix D).

The following procedures were then adopted for conducting the preliminary investigation and collecting and analyzing data for the main study.

Preliminary Interviews

During September and October 1986 exploratory interviews were conducted with 14 persons who either were working in or otherwise had experience of elementary schools in Alberta; none was involved in the main study. Of these, two were superintendents, five were principals, five were elementary school teachers, and two were parents of elementary school children. These interviews were conducted in conjunction with the two pilot-testing stages of questionnaire design.

The preliminary interviews dealt with the topics referred to in the Schedule for Preliminary Interviews (Appendix A). All respondents were asked about effectiveness of schools and principals, although only principals were invited to comment about principals' job satisfaction. To allow respondents to contribute their own ideas and offer personal comments and examples, rather than directing them only to reflect upon predetermined aspects of school life, the questions were of an open-ended nature and the interviews were conducted with a minimum of structure. As a result, respondents presented varying perspectives on the primary criteria of and constraints upon effectiveness, and the five principals also reflected extensively upon work facets that they deemed to be important for their job satisfaction. These perceptions revealed matters of apparent importance in Alberta elementary school settings which had been neglected in the literature.

Three interviews were tape recorded; the other eleven were recorded by taking handwritten notes. By exploring these alternative approaches here, the researcher was able to ascertain the strengths and appropriateness of each recording technique prior to final interviews of elementary school principals. Tape recording facilitated reproduction of verbatim responses; however, transcription was very time consuming. On the other hand, manual recording was adequate for these interviews, although it precluded presentation of some important responses in the respondents' own words; it was also thought to be inadequate for recording detailed, complex statements of perceptions, as would be required in final interviews. Moreover, these interviewees were comfortable with tape recording, as the issues did not seem to be sensitive ones.

First Pilot Test of Questionnaires

Immediately following the completion of preliminary interviews, the initial nine respondents were asked to complete questionnaires appropriate for their status; the two elementary school parents responded to the questionnaire for teachers. In addition, respondents were invited to comment upon the completeness, appropriateness and clarity of items, layout and length of all instruments. This served both as a first pilot test of questionnaires and as a further opportunity to glean ideas about the substantive issues under investigation.

The comments resulted in stylistic modification of the questionnaires by adding variety to the types of responses and reducing the apparent and actual length of questionnaires. Three respondents in this study also questioned the appropriateness of the rating scales employed. Two recommended replacement of the existing three-point importance scale with a four-fold scale; the questionnaire was revised accordingly. One further queried the need for a six-point scale for effectiveness ratings, arguing that four options were sufficient. On the other hand, another favoured five categories. While these two suggestions had merit, revision of those effectiveness and job satisfaction scales would have precluded future comparison of the findings from the main study with those obtained in Gunn's (1984) earlier research; and the potential knowledge to be gained from comparisons of perceptions at different school levels outweighed the apparent convenience of amended scales.

These initial versions of the questionnaire instruments were also submitted to central office administrators of the Edmonton Public and Separate School Districts. Their reviews led to a recommendation to add one school effectiveness item: maximizing the development of creativity. One parent also stressed this dimension as critical for effectiveness in elementary schools. Hence, this was among the additions to the questionnaires.

One difficulty in designing the questionnaire for teachers related to the appropriateness of eliciting their perceptions about the effectiveness of their principals. On one hand, the importance of effective leadership for achieving overall effectiveness seemed clear; on the other, there was a concern not to offend or embarrass principals in the study, for their cooperation was vital. As a compromise, the initial pilot test included a single item about the effectiveness and importance of "exhibiting appropriate leadership." The suitability of this item was also checked with officials of the Edmonton Public School District; they expressed no concern, commenting that their own biennial survey of teachers' perceptions specifically requested assessments of teachers' "confidence and respect for the principal." Subsequent pilot test respondents found no ethical difficulty with this item, but uncertainty about its intent led to a revision to "displaying effective leadership by the principal."

Second Pilot Test of Questionnaires

In October 1986 two further principals and three teachers were contacted for preliminary interviews and pilot testing of the revised instruments. One superintendent was likewise asked to comment about the instrument for area superintendents. Their responses permitted further improvement of the three questionnaires. The superintendent, in particular, asserted a need to treat "parents" and "the non-parent community" as separate aspects of the study. He also recommended additions to the instrument for area superintendents; and these recommendations were adopted.

Revisions Resulting from the Preliminary Interviews and Pilot Studies

Information gleaned from the initial interviews and pilot studies were analyzed and documented in detail for review. These investigations provided a range of recommendations for improving the instruments prior to the main study. For reasons of parsimony, the full record of those outcomes is not included with this report. However, in order to indicate the nature of the revisions to instruments and to illustrate the researcher's attention to a comprehensive array of items in the study, the following summary of opinions is presented.

According to the interviewees, principals may obtain ongoing job satisfaction where they fulfil their own goals and see their programs working, where students are learning and feeling satisfied at school, and where staff are deriving work satisfaction and developing professionally. A sense of accomplishment may arise from successful completion of projects and tasks and an awareness that they have contributed to greater organizational effectiveness.

Four major categories of school effectiveness criteria were identified. First, effectiveness may be judged according to achievement of differing goals: (a) academic goals, where attainment is measured by standardized test results; or (b) academic, social and/or creativity development goals, which may be set collaboratively at school and are widely known and--at least in general terms--shared. Effectiveness may also be identified in other outcomes: high student achievement at the junior high school level; high student satisfaction and morale, which are displayed in enthusiastic participation and cooperation by students; and low staff turnover. Second, effective practices and attitudes of staff may include the following: (a) staff cohesiveness, cooperation and high morale; (b) familiarity with subject matter and appropriate teaching practices; (c) conscientious, improvement-oriented teachers who display characteristics of hard work, good organization, enthusiasm for collaborative work with other teachers, and effort to revise approaches and present a wide range of suitable educational experiences for students; (d) caring teachers, who display concern for the welfare of students; (e) high expectations for student attainment; and (f) adaptable teachers, whose effectiveness is seen in their willingness to respond to change. Third, the organization should be structured to permit non-educational tasks to be performed efficiently. Fourth, the effectiveness of a school in connection with its environment may be judged according to its success on three dimensions: (a) parental and community satisfaction and support for its work, as reflected in the nature and extent of parental complaints and comments as well as in press reports; (b) school-community interaction such as staff participation in community activities, discussions with and messages to parents, and invitations to parents to become involved at school; and (c) central office support and communication, as shown by board policies and central office-school interaction.

On the other hand, school effectiveness may be constrained by factors such as the following: competing goals; teachers' failure to learn from prior experiences; unsupportive local communities; inappropriate assignments of teachers to schools and teaching duties; insufficient time for professional development of staff; unmotivated, uncohesive or change-resistant staff; shortage of teachers; teaching time and physical resources; conflicting expectations of teachers; inflexible and inappropriate central office policies and demands; as well as poor leadership.

Respondents in the preliminary interviews stressed the contribution of an effective elementary school principal to the attainment of overall school effectiveness. Five major dimensions of effective leadership were presented. First, characteristics of effective principalship may include the leader's coordination of the development of school goals, as well as clear (formal and informal) specification of goals with evaluations to ensure intents are being effected. Second, the effectiveness of principals may also be judged according to their instructional direction and administrative organization of staff and by their maintenance of an appropriate school environment through student discipline. Third, principals may be more effective if, by exemplary behaviour and public proclamation, they foster personal enthusiasm for improvement, a desire for ongoing professional development, concern for pupils and keenness for high achievement. Fourth, the effectiveness of principals may be appraised by their efficient management of administrative tasks and appropriate assignment of staff members to tasks. Fifth, an aspect of effective principalship may be frequent and amicable associations with teachers, students, parents and central office personnel.

At the same time, principals may face constraints upon their effectiveness. These difficulties relate partly to the personalities of principals; they may be insensitive, uncommunicative, unenthusiastic, poorly trained or otherwise ill-equipped personally for leadership. Uncooperative and unwilling teachers and antagonistic community members may also interfere with principals' efforts to work effectively.

These perspectives had important implications for the main study. Most responses focussed on variables already included in the survey instruments--an outcome that gave some assurance that the questionnaire items, based primarily upon the literature and prior research at other school levels in Alberta, addressed most of the crucial issues at the elementary school level in this location. Some data , however, related to topics which had not been ascertained from the literature. Owing to their likely importance, these ideas were incorporated in the instruments for the main study.

Four dimensions were added to the job satisfaction section of the principals' questionnaire: attitudes of teachers toward ongoing professional improvement; the help the principal gives students and teachers to succeed; achievement of students; and achievement of the principal's own professional objectives. The items about morale of staff and students were extended to include satisfaction of those groups. One item was added to the school effectiveness section of the questionnaires: experiencing minimal deviant behaviour among students. The item about maximizing student satisfaction was also extended to include morale. Cooperation was added to clarify and extend the intent of the item about displaying staff cohesion. Items included in the principalship effectiveness section of the questionnaire for principals were publicizing school goals, exercising exemplary behaviour at school, and communicating with students. Principals' inability to distinguish between job satisfaction and sense of accomplishment supported a decision to investigate the job satisfaction-sense of accomplishment connection both in the questionnaire study (as a job facet) and final interviews (in an exploratory way). Opinions about common constraints on effectiveness highlighted their probable importance for effectiveness in elementary schools in Alberta; those matters were therefore judged to be worthy of attention.

Development of Questionnaires

Based on the review of literature, preliminary interviews and pilot studies, survey instruments were developed to elicit data about school effectiveness, principals' job satisfaction and effectiveness, and selected personal and organizational matters; principals were asked about all aspects, although teachers and area superintendents were approached only in connection with school effectiveness and the effectiveness of principals. Most items called for ratings on forced-choice scales; however, sections were provided to obtain open-ended responses about undefined variables as well as to glean additional ideas and explanations that respondents viewed as important for job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness in elementary schools. Adopting the current view in the literature, satisfaction/dissatisfaction and effectiveness/ineffectiveness were treated as continuous dimensions.

Initial items for the job satisfaction section of the questionnaire came from Gunn's (1984) instrument for senior high school principals. This instrument had been developed for that kind of research in Alberta settings. Three additions were made for this study. First, following legislated introduction of the Management and Finance Plan in Alberta in 1985, principals in this province in general were made responsible by their school boards for formal evaluation of teachers. Hence, an item about this aspect of the principal's work was included. Second, to accommodate the possibility that the job satisfaction variables drawn from Rice's (1978) instrument were incomplete with regard to principals of elementary schools at this time, a free response question was included to elicit other aspects of the principal's work which may have a major bearing on their job satisfaction. Third, to gauge the relative importance of various work facets for principals' job satisfaction, an importance scale was added. Although this extended the range of responses considerably, it provided useful data which, in conjunction with personal satisfaction ratings, highlighted aspects of the principal's work that may be critical problem areas and thus foci of attention for policy makers and future researchers. In addition, it permitted the matter of self-weighting of job satisfaction ratings to be examined.

Gunn's (1984) instrument provided some initial effectiveness dimensions as bases for the effectiveness sections of the questionnaires for principals, teachers and area superintendents. However, an extensive array of items emerged from the review of organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness literature. Ratsoy's (1983) organizational effectiveness checklist was helpful for translating concepts into questionnaire items, as were Ratsoy and Miklos's (1985) school district effectiveness questionnaire and four instruments used by Hoy and Ferguson (1985) in school effectiveness research in the United States. As with the job satisfaction section, the sections on effectiveness incorporated scales to assess not only the effectiveness of schools on a wide range of predetermined criteria but also the importance of each criterion. Provision was also made for respondents to add effectiveness dimensions of their own in the event of omissions. Owing to the possible importance of constraining influences on school effectiveness and a paucity of research knowledge about constraints--particularly in the Alberta context--open-ended items were added to both effectiveness sections. These invited respondents to advance factors that they saw as inhibiting the effectiveness of schools and principals.

As noted earlier, other effectiveness and job satisfaction dimensions of potential importance for Alberta settings were identified through the conduct of preliminary interviews and pilot research. Those studies also supported the usefulness and relevance of importance scales, the focus on effectiveness of elementary school principals, the use of open-ended items and the inclusion of questions regarding constraints on effectiveness.

Distribution and Return of Questionnaires

On 10 November 1986 questionnaires were mailed to all elementary schools in the sample. Principals of schools outside Edmonton received only the questionnaire for principals (Appendix B) together with a covering letter requesting their support for the study, a reply paid return envelope and a reply paid postcard (Appendix D). The postcard was included for return by separate mail; it served to identify school principals who had completed and returned questionnaires while affording them the anonymity of questionnaires without codes or other distinguishing markings.

For each Edmonton Public or Separate School District school in the sample, the principal was likewise sent a questionnaire for personal completion together with a reply-paid return envelope and covering letter to explain the intent of the study and the tasks required of principals (Appendix D). In addition, this communication included copies of the questionnaire for teachers (Appendix B), covering letters for teachers (Appendix D) and envelopes to ensure privacy of those responses; sufficient copies were sent to permit distribution to all certificated staff members other than the school principal. Teachers were requested to enclose and seal their completed questionnaires in the envelopes provided and return them to their principals for mailing. All of the Edmonton questionnaires for principals and teachers were prenumbered with school codes so that responses by area superintendents, principals and teachers could subsequently be matched and compared for each school; coding of instruments for teachers ensured that all respondents could be identified even if some questionnaires were returned under separate cover.

Three weeks later (4 December 1986) follow-up letters with reply paid envelopes and, in the case of schools outside Edmonton, a second round of postcards, were distributed to principals who had failed to respond in the first instance (Appendix D). Owing to the proximity of questionnaire distribution to Christmas activities in the elementary schools surveyed, returns were accepted until 3 February 1987.

During November 1986 area superintendents who were responsible for the selected Edmonton schools were visited. Personal administration of questionnaires gave further assurance of confidentiality of those sensitive responses. The area superintendents provided responses about all but one of the schools in their charge. (One area superintendent felt ill-equipped to comment about one school, owing to a lack of contact with the principal at the time of the investigation.) These questionnaires were also referenced with school codes for identification of responses about individual schools.

In total, 112 (85.5%) of the 131 questionnaires distributed to principals across Alberta were completed and returned; this comprised 30 responses (88.2%) from the 34 principals in Edmonton Public and Catholic School Districts and 82 (84.5%) from the 97 schools elsewhere in the province. Moreover, 45 respondents volunteered for follow-up interviews about the matters raised in their questionnaire. As noted above, all area superintendents in the two Edmonton districts were also prepared to participate in the study, and they responded about 33 (97.1%) of the 34 schools for which they were responsible. Teachers in the two districts responded less frequently: 262 (66.7%) of the 391 teachers from 32 of the 34 schools surveyed returned usable questionnaires. Three unusable questionnaires were also returned. The Edmonton responses were considered to be representative of elementary schools in that region, owing to the randomness of the provincial sample, similarly high response rates within and outside Edmonton, and the fact that these schools were a subset of that sample. These 34 schools constituted 20.0% of the 170 pure elementary schools in Edmonton.

The return rates for Edmonton Public School District (EPSD) personnel need to be noted individually, for their responses were used in further comparisons with data from that district's 1986-87 survey. Of the 27 schools involved, responses were received from 24 principals (88.9%), from 213 (65.7%) of the 324 teachers in 26 schools, and from area superintendents in connection with 26 (93.3%) of the schools. The 27 schools concerned involved 21.1% of the 128 pure elementary schools in that district. Return rates for the EPSD survey were not available, although it was known that those data reflected high percentages (at least 90.0%) of all constituencies surveyed.

The substantial measure of support expressed by educators who were approached in this study implied a widespread professional regard for the importance of the administrative job satisfaction and school effectiveness issues.

Analysis of Questionnaire Data and Reporting of Findings

Most of the questionnaire responses suited quantitative analysis. In the first instance, personal and organizational profiles of the Alberta principals (the main respondent group) were prepared. These are reported in the next chapter.

Percentage frequency distributions and mean ratings of satisfaction and effectiveness were then calculated for each variable and, for the three overall measures, standard deviations were determined to indicate the dispersion. To identify central dimensions of satisfaction and effectiveness, stepwise multiple linear regression analysis was used to establish the best predictors of overall satisfaction, overall effectiveness of schools and overall effectiveness of principals. Pearson product moment correlations revealed other relationships (although, of course, not causality) among individual variables. ANOVA techniques were used to identify personal and organizational patterns in the overall responses. Scheffé tests (at the .10 level) and, where only two variables were involved, *t*-tests (at the .05 and .01 levels) were performed to assess the statistical significance of differences occurring in these sample data. Statistical significance was established in some instances, giving confidence that differences could also be expected in the population of elementary schools in Alberta. Importance ratings were analyzed to obtain percentage frequency distributions and means; and the means were subsequently compared with those about current levels of satisfaction and effectiveness in order to identify points of departure. Spearman and Kendall correlation analyses were performed to examine the degree of association between parallel sets of rank-ordered variables.

With respect to job satisfaction, cross-tabulation of respondents' satisfaction and importance ratings allowed the self-weighting issue to be examined. Findings from all of these analyses are presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

Investigation of a satisfaction-effectiveness connection involved correlation analysis to interrelate the three sets of data. Initially, the overall variables were correlated to identify direct relationships. To reveal possible mediating influences, overall job satisfaction was then used as the dependent variable in regression and correlation analyses with all effectiveness variables. This strategy was repeated for the other two global variables. These findings appear in Chapter 8.

The data acquired from principals, teachers and area superintendents in the two Edmonton districts were analyzed separately and then compared. Of course, although these data related to 26.0% of the schools in the total sample (34 of 131 schools), these findings could not be generalized with any assurance beyond the geographical region of concern. Another limitation accrued from the small size of this sub-sample; this precluded regression and correlation analysis. As an initial step, percentage frequency distributions and means of principals' perceptions about effectiveness and importance were calculated. Since the unit of analysis and comparison was the school, teachers' responses about effectiveness and importance were converted to mean scores for each school; means were then calculated from those scores. (To have based means merely upon aggregate data would have skewed this analysis in favour of schools with larger numbers of teachers.) With the same intent, area superintendents' responses for each school were treated as distinct sets of responses; although only nine area superintendents were involved, responses were obtained regarding 33 schools, and this permitted frequency distributions and means to be calculated for all variables about which they responded. Owing to the heavy demand on each area superintendent to respond about the effectiveness of many schools and principals, those respondents were not requested to rate the importance of the various items; instead, an open-ended question invited them to record their three most important criteria for judging the effectiveness of schools and principals. Consequently, comparisons of responses from the three educational constituencies about the importance of criteria were limited to consideration of mean ratings by principals and teachers and percentage frequencies of mention of variables by the nine area superintendents. Results of these comparisons are reported in Chapter 9.

The questionnaires also made provision for respondents to advance and rate their own satisfaction and effectiveness variables. This opportunity was given so that the range of responses would not be unduly confined by the instruments. Nevertheless, respondents rarely found a need to introduce further aspects; most who did so mentioned factors that were already included elsewhere in the questionnaire. Additional items are documented in the descriptions of findings; however, they were insufficient in number to warrant inclusion in the statistical analyses.

Other open-ended items were directed toward inhibiting influences on effectiveness. Principals were invited to respond in connection with both matters, whereas teachers and area superintendents were asked only about constraints on school effectiveness in general. Many respondents advanced ideas in this regard, and, to gauge the weight of opinion, the data were subjected to content analysis. The constraining factors and frequencies of mention are reported in the course of presenting provincial and Edmonton findings.

Recognizing the importance of multiple-constituency analysis, a further aspect of the study (reported in Chapter 9) involved comparison of selected findings with data from the EPSD 1986-87 survey of teachers, students and parents. To permit such a comparison, a number of preliminary procedures were required. First, the data obtained from Edmonton principals, teachers and area superintendents in the present study were partitioned according to school district; this analysis required only the ratings by respondents from the 27 EPSD schools. Second, questionnaire items in the two surveys that expressed a common meaning were identified for analysis. (In the table detailing the results of this analysis, the items from both studies are juxtaposed to permit independent assessment of comparability.) Third, with the cooperation of personnel in the office of the district concerned, and with an assurance that its data would be used only for aggregate presentation, EPSD survey responses by teachers, students and parents from the same 27 schools were isolated and converted to equivalent mean ratings.

This task required some manipulation of EPSD data. In that survey, teachers had rated each effectiveness item on a four-point scale ranging from 1, "very much," through 2, "fairly much," and 3, "not very much," to 4, "virtually not at all." The order of these ratings was reversed and they were assigned scores on a six-point scale. EPSD questionnaires asked students and parents to rate each item "yes" (assigned 2) or "no" (assigned 1); students were also permitted to answer "I'm not sure" and parents either "undecided" or "insufficient information." Disregarding the uncommitted responses (for these had not been permitted in the present study), these ratings were also redistributed on a six-point scale. As with teachers' responses in the present study, all EPSD data were then converted to school-by-school item ratings for each constituency; from these, grand means for each item were calculated for teachers, students and parents.

Although the same sample of teachers was used in the two studies, teachers' responses from the EPSD survey were included in the comparison for two reasons: (a) as an external check on the validity of findings from the present study; and (b) to assess the consistency of the two sets of results and thus gauge the comparability of findings relating to other constituencies.

Follow-up Interviews with Principals

In one respect, the follow-up interviews with selected principals afforded an opportunity to corroborate or disconfirm existing findings from the questionnaire analysis. More important, however, the findings included issues about school effectiveness and job satisfaction of principals that warranted closer attention. These interviews permitted issues such as sense of accomplishment and the nature of an appropriate school climate to be explored in some depth with practitioners. Hence, the Schedule for Follow-up Interviews (Appendix C) was based upon a selection of important and inadequately explained findings from this study and upon confounding issues in the literature. A semi-structured interview schedule also suited both the confirmatory and exploratory intents.

In June 1987 the ten principals selected for further participation were interviewed in their schools. A predetermined interview schedule and a semi-structured approach to interviewing were used: some questions invited principals to respond about specific findings in the literature; on other matters they were permitted to contribute and discuss issues that they saw as relevant and important. Anonymity of responses was guaranteed. All interviews were tape recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis.

Analysis and Reporting of Responses from Follow-up Interviews

The responses obtained from the ten elementary school principals selected for interview added considerable understanding to the findings from quantitative analysis. The written records of responses were initially classified according to the several topics for study. Responses were then arranged to reflect, where appropriate, explanation of statistical findings, consistent opinions and contrasting and divergent perceptions. Content analysis, or "counting the number of times that particular ideas or words are presented" (Travers, 1969, p. 228), permitted the extent of support for specific ideas (particularly the constraints on effectiveness) to be recorded. At the same time, the weight of opinion was accompanied by considerable depth of meaning and diversity of opinion and these irreconcilable perceptions also needed to be recorded. To this end, many of the responses were reported in full--often in the respondents' own words. This style of reporting is characteristic of the treatment of qualitative data, and it is defended in a subsequent section.

In view of the common thrust of the questionnaire and interview data, it was appropriate to present the responses from interviews in the course of describing the numerical findings. At the same time, these findings lacked the generalizability that province-wide random sampling and high return rates made available to those from the principals' questionnaires; and, as reports of individual perceptions, they should be regarded with due caution.

Validity and Reliability

If practitioners and other researchers are to derive benefit from a study, they must have confidence in the quality, or overall "trustworthiness" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), of the procedures and the resultant findings. Hence, this matter had to be dealt with in this study. A number of educational and other social researchers have highlighted techniques for helping to ensure high quality research in studies that are quantitative (e.g., Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1985; Englehart, 1972; Kerlinger, 1973; Mouly, 1978; Shaw & Wright, 1967; Wrightsman, 1977) and, more recently, qualitative (e.g., Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1985; Owens, 1982; Skrtic, 1985). Owing to reliance upon both methods in this study, both types of quality controls ~~were~~ considered.

The four dimensions of concern are conventionally referred to as (internal) validity, generalizability (or external validity), reliability and objectivity. Writers about naturalistic research often use Guba's (1981) equivalent labels: "credibility," "transferability," "dependability" and "confirmability."

Validity. Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff and Nelson (1985, p. 205) expressed the nature of validity most clearly: "Validity refers to how truthful, genuine, and authentic data are in representing what they purport to measure. . . . To be valid, instruments must measure what the investigator intends and claims to measure." In other words, beyond accurate measurement (reliability), the findings should portray the phenomena under investigation.

Content validity of the questionnaires was particularly at issue in this study. There was a need to ensure that the items were both indicative of and comprehensive in assessing the job satisfaction and effectiveness constructs. Recognizing that content validation is necessarily "a subjective, judgmental process" (Shaw & Wright, 1967, p. 18), the process of questionnaire construction was informed by an expansive theoretical and research literature, a variety of prior research instruments and preliminary interviews and pilot tests with practitioners in the field. The instruments were also reviewed by the researcher's supervisory committee and by school district administrators.

Even so, some writers have questioned the authenticity of survey research in respect of matters such as job satisfaction. In the words of Gross and Etzioni (1985, pp. 50, 63),

> . . . are workers simply telling us what they think we want to hear? . . . [The] unspoken question is: "Well, if you are unhappy about your work, and you are a red-blooded American, why don't you do something about it?" Since people tend to resist unpleasant thoughts, especially those involving their self-esteem, they are likely to convince themselves that although their job has negative features, it is acceptable, especially considering their education, experience, and alternative job opportunities.

Inclusion of a wide array of specific job dimensions in the instruments helped to alleviate this concern. In addition, interviews provided an opportunity to probe in greater depth the more *and* less satisfying and effective aspects of principals' experiences in schools. Indeed, the validity of the follow-up interviews themselves was discerned from respondents' frankness, generally relaxed manner and willingness to disclose personal attitudes about the matters under investigation. Guarantees of anonymity may have assisted in this connection.

Validity also requires considered responses about the issues of concern. In this study, the instrument was designed to be as direct, unambiguous and appealingly presented as possible, so as to capture attention and interest. Principals were assured that a summary of the research results would be forwarded to them on completion. The high return rate and some oral assurances of interest in the study were encouraging.

One common method of establishing validity, particularly in qualitative research (e.g., Jick, 1979; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), is triangulation. The range of possibilities for corroboration are clear from Denzin's (1970, p. 427) early notation of "the combination of multiple methods, data types, observers and theories in the same investigation." As he acknowledged, multiple research methods and data sources are the usual means of triangulation. Admitting the danger of enhancement associated with self-reports, the follow-up interviews provided a valuable means of checking on the validity of questionnaire responses by principals, and the findings were sufficiently similar to give confidence in those findings. The multiple-constituency sub-study also served a particularly important confirmatory role.

Generalizability. The guiding purpose of studies using statistical samples is to be able to generalize findings beyond the sampled respondents to larger populations. In this study, reliance upon a relatively large, randomly selected sample of principals gave confidence that the findings from the provincial sample were representative of perceptions of other elementary school principals in Alberta. Similarly, responses from a range of personnel in the Edmonton sub-set of that sample were regarded as generalizable within that city region (although a lower response rate among teachers reduced the confidence that could be placed in those findings).

In this context of generalization, one important proviso needs to be recorded about statistically significant findings. While *t*-test and Scheffé procedures established certain significant differences among categories of respondents in this study, those findings indicated only that differences could be expected also in the population of elementary school principals. As Cormier (1971, p. 34) remarked, "it does not necessarily follow [from statistical significance] that the difference . . . is meaningful, important, substantive, or significant in the usual sense of the term. It merely means that [one group in the population] is most likely different than [the other]; it does not indicate to what extent the population means differ." Hence, while differences could be inferred to the population (acknowledging the possibility of a type I error), no statement could be made about the magnitude of that difference in the population. Similarly, many correlation coefficients were significant at the .05 and, often, the .01 levels; yet these findings indicated only that *some* measure of association could also be expected in the population. Nevertheless, the attainment of statistical significance is often "a necessary condition for more important kinds of significance" (Scriven, 1987, p. 13); this served as a signal that a difference of some consequence may be present and that such results would be "worth looking into," for they would "probably not [be] just due to chance" (Herzon & Hooper, 1976, p. 208).

The findings from the qualitative aspects of the study were not regarded as statistically generalizable. At the same time, those findings may have some transferability on a different basis. McCutcheon (1981, p. 8) expressed the view that "generalizability in interpretive studies . . . rests on the readers' ability to generalize personally to their own situations rather than on the researcher's generalizing to populations larger than the sample used in the particular study." Lincoln and Guba (1985) supported this stance. Hence, while the present report includes cautionary remarks that the perceptions of interviewees may not be representative of other principals' opinions, the technique of reporting those responses in detail may permit some readers to find personal relevance in specific viewpoints.

Reliability. Reliability is concerned with the accuracy of measurement. Reliability of research is prerequisite to and inherent in valid results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In an experimental setting, reliability may be established through replication of the study (test-retest method); consistent results provide evidence of accurate measurement of the phenomena. Of course, such repetition is rarely feasible in studies such as the present. More commonly, the internal reliability of the measuring devices is checked statistically, through *ex post facto* correlation of separate items (split-half method). For this study, Guttman split-half analysis using an odd-even split of items resulted in the following correlation coefficients for the sections of the instruments:

	Satisfaction/Effectiveness Scale	Importance Scale
1. Questionnaire for principals:		
(a) Job satisfaction items	.96	.90
(b) School effectiveness items	.95	.92
(c) Principalship effectiveness items	.95	.93
2. Questionnaire for teachers	.98	.93
3. Questionnaire for area superintendents:		
(a) School effectiveness items	.97	—
(b) Principalship effectiveness items	.96	—

These results attested to the reliability of instrumentation for this study. In addition, the structured nature of the research instruments promoted reliability.

Hansen (1987, p. 29) recently noted that, "within the qualitative domain of inquiry, the reliability notion is regarded as increasingly problematic." In Scriven's (1972) view, the reliability of qualitative inquiry can be established as much by the individual researcher's patently rigorous and systematic approach to research as by independent checking on adherence to conventional procedures. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recently reasserted the need to judge reliability according to how convincing the results are.

Objectivity. Objectivity concerns the "confirmability" (Guba, 1981) of a study. In other words, if the same procedures were followed, would the new analysis and interpretation of data result in the same findings? Beyond cost and convenience, survey research benefits from independence of data collection from direct intervention of the researcher (Ary et al., 1985; Mouly, 1978). On the other hand, some writers (e.g., Bailey, 1978; Wrightsman, 1977) have warned about the researcher's influence on questionnaire design. According to Bailey (p. 208), a questionnaire can easily become little more than "an artifact of the particular set of rules given for completion of the questions . . . [and a statement of] what the researcher really wants." Such cautions motivated the exploratory preliminary interviews and the process of pilot testing, as well as an effort to reflect a range of scholarly opinion in the instruments. The research report also includes detailed accounts of responses, often in the respondents' own words, to permit external scrutiny of interpretations and conclusions.

Advantages of the Methodological Approach Employed

The methodology described above was chosen because of its suitability for this kind of research. The following features were considered to be particularly desirable.

1. As Fraser (1983, p. 29) observed, two important and related problems are inherent in most questionnaire studies:

> Most, if not all, attitude surveys rely on some form of questionnaire, in which the designer has pre-empted the questions and the areas of interest, normally with sound justification, but often oriented more to the negative than to the positive. The responder, however, then addresses himself to the questions that are asked and not necessarily to the points that are specifically contentious to him, nor to what he finds good about this work.

These shortcomings, of predetermination of relevant issues and of negative bias, were taken seriously when designing the present study. Effort was expended to ensure that no negative or positive orientation was attributed to variables and that likely positive/desirable and negative/undesirable aspects were both incorporated in the instruments. To account for the limiting and directive effect of questionnaires, the researcher conducted exploratory interviews with persons representing a range of educational interests and viewpoints. Moreover, by allowing those interviews to proceed with minimal direction, respondents were given freedom to express unanticipated attitudes about job satisfaction and school effectiveness; this expanded the field of investigation to encompass the issues that seemed to be important. In this way, the preliminary interviews furnished current data additional to the matters contained in the literature, which helped to establish the range of variables for subsequent examination.

2. Administration of a questionnaire to a randomly selected sample of 131 elementary school principals in Alberta provided a range of perceptions which could be expected to

represent school administrators' perceptions of aspects of their work lives and organizational performance in public and separate elementary schools throughout the province. Its reliance upon rating scales and inclusion of variables used in prior research in the same geographical location also added an important programmatic research element to the study, thus enhancing its potential to contribute incrementally to understanding of satisfaction and effectiveness in schools of differing educational levels.

3. Follow-up interviews with principals clarified, added depth of meaning to and provided "structural corroboration" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 106) of the questionnaire responses. The semi-structured interview approach ensured that specific issues were investigated while allowing some scope for respondents to add ideas and direction of their own.

4. Beyond the specific contribution of each methodological phase of this study, the systematic use of qualitative and quantitative components combined the two approaches in a way that capitalized upon the strengths of each. The preliminary interviews, being exploratory in intent, permitted important, previously neglected aspects of satisfaction and effectiveness to be incorporated in the questionnaire. Perceptions about the resultant array of variables were elicited in measurable form by means of questionnaire responses from a representative sample of principals as well as other important educational constituencies; only survey research can produce such an extensive collection of quantifiable data and facilitate statistical analysis with generalizable outcomes. Follow-up interviews focussed special attention on selected findings from the questionnaire, thereby extending understanding in important ways. In addition, by using a qualitative approach to report those interview findings, it was possible to communicate those responses in a way that surpassed the unavoidable superficiality and sterility of a purely statistical account (Smith, 1979), gave readers opportunity to draw personal meaning from the attitudes conveyed, and permitted readers to judge for themselves the quality of the researcher's interpretations.

5. This systematic use of quantitative and qualitative strategies was also part of a broad strategy of triangulation--an approach and that has been recently commended in the educational research literature (e.g., Firestone, 1987; Pitner, 1987). The foregoing reviews of perception research, which highlighted the multiplicity of influences on individual perceptions, and organizational effectiveness research, which drew attention to the need for multiple-constituency views of organizational behaviour, also demonstrated the importance of eliciting and respecting alternative views of the issues under investigation.

This study incorporated multiple perspectives in a number of ways. Preliminary interviews with limited structure, questionnaires and semi-structured follow-up interviews were combined as data collection strategies. Data sources included elementary school principals, teachers, area superintendents and, indirectly, students and parents. The study relied upon a single investigator; however, the design facilitated comparison of findings with those from studies by other researchers in Alberta.

The multi-stage, multi-constituent research methodology used in this study revealed shared as well as individual perceptions about the aspects of elementary school life of concern. This mix was preserved in the report of findings and was seen as providing relevant information to readers of rationalistic and interpretive orientations.

6. The design of this study seemed to have particular benefits for the study of organizational effectiveness. By employing a broad organizational effectiveness framework and attending to a wide range of criteria, it was intended to surpass the seemingly limited perspective of much of the school effectiveness research. It also took into account the major criticisms of conventional organizational effectiveness research (e.g., Goodman et al., 1983). First, as the delimitations section of this report records, the construct space of effectiveness and time frames of concern were specified. Second, arbitrary selection of criteria was avoided by drawing upon research literatures in two disciplines and by soliciting ideas from a range of persons who had intimate knowledge

of and varying perspectives on elementary schools in Alberta. Third, regression analysis identified central dimensions of perceived current levels of effectiveness, as means of linking organizational attributes with the global notion of effectiveness; at the same time, no assertions were made about these correlating variables "determining" the effectiveness of schools. Fourth, reliance upon perceptual assessments of effectiveness minimized the impact of the researcher's values on the analysis; formulation of standards and measures of effectiveness was left to respondent practitioners, who were regarded as best placed to make those judgements.

7. Also important in the current climate of research is that the methodological approach and research topics did not involve ethical problems. Information obtained from the preliminary interviews was intended only to provide background information and improve the quality of questionnaires. The follow-up interviews served to enhance the researcher's understanding of school life and the work and attitudes of school principals. In both instances, respondents were assured that their participation was a matter of personal choice and that their anonymity would be preserved. The questionnaires were returned anonymously by principals, teachers and area superintendents; schools were identified only by code number (to permit follow-up of outstanding responses and facilitate comparison of data). Wherever possible, sensitive issues were taken into account: (a) teachers were not asked to rate the effectiveness of their principals on specific dimensions, and their global responses in that regard were not disclosed to principals and are reported only in aggregate form; and (b) responses by area superintendents, which were of a particularly confidential nature, were collected personally rather than by mail and were likewise used only for purposes of collective appraisal of schools and comparison of perceptions.

Delimitations

To permit detailed investigation of the issues outlined in the problem statements, the researcher imposed the following restrictions on the study.

1. As Cameron and Whetten (1983a) explained, purposeful study of school effectiveness requires selection of criteria for investigation. The same problem applies to investigation of job satisfaction. Consequently, this study was confined to examination of dimensions presented within the literature and revealed during preliminary interviews as being the most important for effectiveness and administrative job satisfaction in schools. Although there was an endeavour to be comprehensive in the survey, that phase excluded some seemingly minor aspects from investigation and accorded others only superficial attention. For example, investigation of constraining influences on effectiveness in elementary schools formed a subsidiary intent of this study, and it is likely that only major barriers were revealed. In follow-up interviews, attention was directed toward furthering knowledge of specific variables; this represented a still more limited focus of inquiry.

2. Following Cameron (1986b), and in accordance with Miskel's (1982b) school effectiveness model, the effectiveness aspect of this study was delimited specifically in terms of Cameron's seven questions. These questions and circumscriptions for this study are summarized below.

Guideline	Circumscription
(a) From whose perspective is effectiveness judged?	As part of a study of educational administrators' perceptions, elementary school principals constituted the major perspective of concern. To a lesser extent, perspectives of teachers, area superintendents, students and parents were also sought for comparison.
(b) On what domains of activity is the judgement focussed?	The study attended to each major element of the organizational framework shown in Figure 2.3. Each was regarded as an important domain of the school's performance. The student dimension was examined in terms of academic, social, creative, behavioural and affective outcomes.
(c) What level of analysis is used?	Analysis was based on the school level; this is the appropriate level for examining climate and other organizational attributes that inhere in the

		organization as a social unit.
(d)	What is the purpose of the assessment?	The investigation was planned to identify levels of organizational effectiveness in distinct areas as well as in global terms. It was also intended to ascertain important effectiveness criteria for schools.
(e)	What time frame is employed?	Criteria were oriented toward the short term (e.g., student achievement; morale; satisfaction) and intermediate term (e.g., keeping up-to-date with new methods; preparing students for junior high school) (see Miskel, 1982b). Long-term effectiveness (survival) was not considered.
(f)	What type of data is sought?	Perceptions of effectiveness were obtained by questionnaire ratings and interview responses.
(g)	What is the referent against which effectiveness is judged?	Effectiveness was gauged by respondents' subjective, perceptual assessments. No arbitrary measurement standards were imposed by the researcher.

3. Because the ideas obtained during preliminary interviews were intended only to guide further investigation, the selection of respondents for those interviews was based on accessibility and variety of opinion rather than on representativeness.

4. The data collected from questionnaires sent to principals applied only to "pure" elementary schools in Alberta; hence, resultant findings could not be generalized to other locations, different levels or types of schools, or other organizations. Follow-up interviews were conducted with ten of the principals who indicated in questionnaire responses that they were willing to submit to interview. This selection of interviewees depended upon consent and geographical proximity to the researcher. There was sufficient interest in the study to permit a selection of interviewees with personal, organizational and regional characteristics approximating those of the larger sample. Nevertheless, although final interviews provided informative, in-depth findings, these could not be considered to be representative of opinion among other elementary school principals in the province. Questionnaires for teachers and area superintendents were administered only within two selected school districts; although 26.0% of the total sample of schools received this further attention, the geographically restricted purview of

inquiry prevented generalization of the comparative findings beyond the region of concern. The school district data used as another basis for comparison confined the applicability of that aspect of the study still further. As well as the limitations affecting comparison of findings with those from an undocumented and differently conducted study, the data applied only to the schools that were in that one school district. For this reason, findings from this dimension of the study were seen as no more than suggestive of perceptual differences elsewhere. Hence, this report includes no assertions about the appropriateness of the findings for other regions or school types.

Limitations and Assumptions

The delimitations disclosed above limited the contribution of this study in important ways. A number of other noteworthy limitations and assumptions also restricted the contributions of this study.

1. Certain limitations and assumptions are inherent in every survey research initiative. First, in the absence of means of checking, the validity of findings is limited by a need to assume that non-respondents' perceptions are consistent with those obtained from respondents. This occasioned less serious concern in the present study than in many investigations; 85.5% of principals who were surveyed participated in the study, and area superintendents responded in connection with all but one of the schools about which they were asked. However, a lower proportion of teachers (66.7%) responded.
2. Some exploratory and other open-ended items were included in all questionnaires for this study, and interviews permitted investigation of aspects of effectiveness and job satisfaction that had either been neglected by previous research or seemed to be of special relevance for elementary schools in Alberta. Nevertheless, as is usual with survey investigations, the substantial reliance of this study upon questionnaire instruments limited the kinds of perceptions that could be expressed and the number of variables that could be studied.

3. Correlational findings from the study did not support causal explanations of relationships among job satisfaction and school effectiveness variables. Only through interview questioning were matters of directional influence pursued.

4. One implication of the review of perception research was that, as with all studies in social situations, the procedures for and outcomes of this investigation were restricted by the perceptions of respondents and the researcher. The foregoing section on validity, reliability and objectivity recorded strategies used to minimize the influence of perceptual biases. Nevertheless, the design of the study was premised upon two assumptions about the respondents which could not readily be appraised or avoided: (a) principals could assess their job satisfaction and could weight the importance of satisfaction with various facets of their work; and (b) principals, superintendents and teachers were aware of and could judge the criteria and rate the effectiveness of schools and principals concerned. The researcher's paradigmatic stance and relevant personal preconceptions and prejudices also inevitably intervened in the inquiry; and, to facilitate independent assessment of their influence, the perspective and known assumptions of the researcher are reviewed below.

Research Orientation, Values and Assumptions of the Researcher

Further to the obvious implications of perception theory, scholars in a variety of disciplines now acknowledge that every investigator approaches research with a personal frame of reference that focusses the inquiry and influences data collection, analysis and presentation of findings. Myrdal (1978, pp. 778-779) highlighted the extent of this influence and explained why researchers need to be conscious of its limiting power:

> Valuations are always with us. Disinterested research there has never been and can never be. Prior to answers there must be questions. There can be no view except from a viewpoint. In the questions raised and the viewpoint chosen, valuations are implied. Our valuations determine our approaches to a problem, the definition of our concepts, the choice of models, the selection of our observations, the presentation of our conclusions--in fact the whole pursuit of a study from beginning to end. If we remain unaware of the valuational basis to our research,

> this implies that we proceed to reason with one premise missing, which implies an indeterminateness that opens the door for biases.

One well-known and pervasive influence on the direction of social inquiry is the research orientation of the investigator (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Jacknicke & Rowell, 1987; Owens, 1982). The researcher who perceives the world from a rationalistic standpoint investigates variables with a view to explanation and prediction. Such an approach produces findings that differ markedly from those arising out of inquiry by a scholar who perceives and explores multiple, context-bound realities of individuals, and from those obtained by the researcher who perceives and is thereby impelled toward investigation of individuals' means of wielding social power. Recognizing this power of a research orientation to structure and confine the focus of inquiry and shape the interpretation of data gleaned from investigation, there was a need for readers of this report to be alerted to the researcher's own stance.

In outlining the orientation upon which this study was founded, the researcher was conscious that adoption and acknowledgement of a research stance was not in any way intended to discredit alternative orientations to inquiry. On the contrary, Kaplan's (1964, pp. 275-276) early caution against dogmatic defence of a single approach to research was instructive: "When one doctrine, method, or technique comes to be regarded as the sole repository of truth, or the one avenue to truth, for my part I have no doubt that it is the truth which suffers."

This study reflected the researcher's preference for acknowledging the powerful influence of acculturation and organizational socialization on individual attitude and action (Murphy, 1979; Vivelo, 1978). For the purpose of research, this fitted with the social systems view of organizations wherein individuals are thought to exhibit broadly consistent expressions of values, beliefs and perceptions of circumstances and events. Recognizing, however, that the social environment encourages conformity without exacting from individuals absolute uniformity of attitude and action (see Bogdan &

Taylor, 1975; Dimen-Schein, 1977), individual, sometimes contradictory, views of the matters under investigation were also regarded as important.

The researcher's prior understandings of and beliefs about the issues for research may also limit the avenues of investigation and attribution of meaning to data. Griffiths (1987, p. 37) recently noted that one emerging realization in educational administration theory is the need to acknowledge contextual factors including "the environment or society and the organizational setting, as well as the scientist who brings biases and predispositions to their study." Pitner (1987, p. 117) expressed particular disapproval of some school effectiveness research in this regard. She cited "a tendency in some of the effective-schools literature to disregard empirical data that are counter to the reporter's ideology" and for "research findings that are contrary to the effective-schools ideology [to be] discarded." In accordance with these warnings and with the growing practice among researchers in some disciplines (see Dimen-Schein, 1977; Gollner, 1983), relevant presuppositions of which the researcher was aware are disclosed.

The researcher's view of school effectiveness is generally in accordance with the conventional Western value premise identified by Holmes (1986, p. 84), which sees the general intent of education as "the development of character and of intellect." More than this, however, schools as social organizations were regarded as serving additional/alternative purposes for the various constituencies involved; such a stance accords more with the systems views of organizations and the multiple-constituency views of effectiveness criteria.

Summary

To obtain information relating to the research questions, ideas and instruments drawn from the literature, preliminary interviews and pilot studies were used to develop and refine questionnaires for distribution to elementary school principals, teachers and area superintendents. The questionnaire for principals dealt with the job satisfaction of principals, the effectiveness of schools and the effectiveness of principals, whereas the questionnaires for teachers and area superintendents were confined to effectiveness.

The questionnaire for principals was distributed to a 20% random sample (131) of principals; responses were received from 112 (85.5%) of those principals. Questionnaires were sent to teachers in 34 schools and the nine area superintendents in Edmonton. Follow-up interviews were conducted with ten of the principals, to probe important issues and assist in establishing validity. Comparative data from an independent survey of teachers, students and parents in one Edmonton school district were also obtained.

Statistical data were analyzed by comparison of means, correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis, and individual responses on questionnaires and in interviews were analyzed for content and arranged for detailed reporting.

The review of relevant literature, use of existing research instruments, preliminary interviews and pilot studies, and triangulation of research methods and data sources helped to establish the validity of the research procedures and outcomes. These techniques also assisted with objectivity; in addition, the researcher disclosed relevant personal perspectives for independent appraisal. The internal reliability of the questionnaire for principals was checked by the split-half method and found to be satisfactory.

The study was delimited to examination of elementary school principals' perceptions of their job satisfaction, the effectiveness of schools and the effectiveness of principals in Alberta and to other constituencies' perceptions of effectiveness in Edmonton. The focus of the effectiveness investigation, in particular, was further restricted according to the organizational level of analysis, an effectiveness time frame, as well as in other ways.

CHAPTER 4

PROFILE OF RESPONDENT PRINCIPALS AND THEIR SCHOOLS

This chapter provides an overview of the personal and contextual circumstances of the 112 Alberta principals who constituted the central source of data for this study. It details, first, a range of organizational characteristics pertaining to their schools. Second, certain personal and professional attributes of the principals are presented. Some of the attributes were known for respondents as well as non-respondents, and comparisons were performed to check for any systematic discrepancies between the two groups; the third section of this chapter reports on these comparisons. The organizational and personal features that are presented also guided the selection of the interview sample; the nature of this selection is recorded in a fourth section.

Characteristics of the Alberta Schools

Important organizational characteristics of schools in the province-wide study are displayed in Table 4.1. Of the 112 schools from which principals returned questionnaires, 74 (66.1%) were in city locations. Schools in towns (23 schools; 20.5%) and rural areas (15; 13.4%) were substantially fewer in number. This may be partly attributable to a concentration of "pure" elementary schools in city locations and partly to the predominance of urban schools in Alberta. Half of the schools (56) were in public school districts, 23 (20.5%) in separate school districts, 19 (17.0%) in counties and 14 (12.5%) in school divisions.

As might be expected, there was also a predominance of schools providing education to students across the K-6 range; 83 respondents (74.1%) reported that they were servicing all elementary grade levels, whereas 19 schools (17.0%) offered no kindergarten education and ten schools (8.9%)--mostly in rural areas--provided education at an assortment of grade levels. Many schools in all of these categories

Table 4.1

Organizational Characteristics of Schools
(n = 112)

Organizational Characteristic	f	%f
School Setting		
City	74	66.1
Town	23	20.5
Rural	15	13.4
Type of School System		
Public District	56	50.0
Separate District	23	20.5
County	19	17.0
Division	14	12.5
Grades in School (including Special Education)		
K - 6	83	74.1
1 - 6	19	17.0
Other	10	8.9

included special education programs.

As the data in Table 4.2 indicate, there was a wide distribution of student and staff numbers at these schools. Most commonly, student enrolments were in the 100-399 range, with a fairly even spread across those three hundred-level categories. The cumulative percentage frequency distribution in the table highlights the sparsity of large elementary schools in the province: only nine were in the 400-499 range, and four schools had 500 or more pupils. The mean enrolment for the 108 schools from which responses to this question were received was 249 students.

The average number of full-time-equivalent teachers in the schools was 14. Most schools (78.9%) had fewer than 20 teachers, with the majority (51.4%) being in the 10-19 category. In most of the schools (90.7%) there were fewer than two

Table 4.2

Numbers of Students and Professional Personnel in Schools

Number of Students or Professional Personnel	f	%f	Cum %f
Number of Students (n = 108)			
Fewer than 100	16	14.8	14.8
100 - 199	27	25.0	39.8
200 - 299	25	23.2	63.0
300 - 399	27	25.0	88.0
400 - 499	9	8.3	96.3
500 or more	4	3.7	100.0
Mean = 249			
Number of Full-Time Equivalent Teachers (n = 109)			
Fewer than 10	30	27.5	27.5
10 - 19	56	51.4	78.9
20 - 29	21	19.3	98.2
30 or more	2	1.8	100.0
Mean = 14			
Number of Vice-Principals (n = 107)			
0	42	39.3	39.3
1	55	51.4	90.7
2	9	8.4	99.1
3	1	0.9	100.0

vice-principals: frequently (51.4%) there was one vice-principal, although many (39.3%) had none. This generally small size of school staffs and limited reliance upon vice-principals accords with the relatively low enrolments in elementary schools as compared with many junior high and senior high schools in the province.

Characteristics of the Principals

As a guide to the backgrounds and perspectives of respondents in the Alberta-wide study, distributions of fundamental personal characteristics of principals--principalship and educational experience as well as career aspirations--are presented in Tables 4.3 to 4.6. The data recorded in Table 4.3 show that males outnumbered female incumbents of school leadership positions in the ratio of 4:1 (90 males and 22 females). Principals were also most often in the 40-49 age range (47.3%), although many were in the next younger or older age groups (25.0% were 30-39 years of age and 22.3% were 50-59 years). Three quarters of these principals were younger than 50 years of age.

Table 4.3

Personal Characteristics of Principals
(n = 112)

Personal Characteristic	f	%f	Cum %f
Sex			
Female	22	19.6	
Male	90	80.4	
Age			
Younger than 30	2	1.8	1.8
30 - 39	28	25.0	26.8
40 - 49	53	47.3	74.1
50 - 59	25	22.3	96.4
60 or older	4	3.6	100.0

Moreover, at the time of the investigation, many of these principals had already occupied administrative appointments for many years. As the data in Table 4.4 reveal, the respondents' mean length of experience as principals was 11.8 years, of which only 6.6 years, on average, was in the present school. Indeed, 69.0% stated that they had had seven or more years of experience as principals: only 6.4% were accepting that role for the first time, and 17.3% were in one of their first four years of principalship. To summarize, many of the elementary school principals in the sample not only had considerable experience in this and other school principalship positions but had many more years of service ahead before retirement.

Table 4.4

Years of Experience as Principals
(n = 110)

Years of Experience	f	%f	Cum %f
In Present Position			
1	12	10.9	10.9
2	20	18.2	29.1
3	12	10.9	40.0
4	4	3.6	43.6
5	9	8.2	51.8
6	10	9.1	60.9
7 - 9	10	9.1	70.0
10 - 12	19	17.3	87.3
13 or more	14	12.7	100.0
Mean = 6.6			
In Prior Principalship			
0	37	34.5	34.5
1 - 4	22	20.0	54.5
5 - 8	25	22.8	77.3
9 or more	25	22.7	100.0
Mean = 5.2			
Total Years in Principalship			
1	7	6.4	6.4
2	8	7.3	13.7
3	2	1.8	15.5
4	2	1.8	17.3
5	7	6.4	23.7
6	8	7.3	31.0
7 - 9	12	10.9	41.9
10 - 12	17	15.6	57.5
13 or more	47	42.5	100.0
Mean = 11.8			

The long-term career aspirations of the respondents, reported in Table 4.5, further reveal that many had no other work ambitions than to continue as principals. While some foresaw a possibility of superintendency (11 principals) , assistant superintendency (11) or central office consultancy (four), and while seven remained undecided about their career goals, most (56.3%) considered that they had already attained the level of advancement they sought.

Table 4.5

Long-Term Career Aspirations of Principals
(n = 112)

Career Aspiration	f	%f
Principalship	63	56.3
Superintendency	11	9.8
Assistant Superintency	11	9.8
Central Office Consultancy	7	6.2
Department of Education Position	4	3.6
University Teaching	2	1.8
Student Services	1	0.9
Private Consulting	1	0.9
Undecided	7	6.2
Not Applicable--Retirement Imminent	5	4.5

Most principals in this study seemed to be academically well qualified for their jobs: only 29.7% had fewer than the mean level of five years of post-secondary education. A further 23.4% had completed five years of higher education studies and the remaining 46.9% had completed 6 or more years.

Comparison of Respondents with Non-Respondents

Despite efforts to ensure randomness of sampling, one persistent problem with survey studies is that of the often indeterminate influence of non-respondents on the representativeness of findings. Although non-respondents in this study were few (14.5% of the total sample), a check to ensure that no systematic and important differences affected the trustworthiness of the findings was considered to be desirable. Hence, selected organizational and personal attributes which were judged to be likely sources of divergent perceptions and which could be ascertained from Alberta Education records were compared. The information in Table 4.6 shows that no substantial difference between the two groups occurred: indeed, they were remarkably alike. This general conformity, together with the high proportion of respondents in the sample, gave some assurance that the few non-respondents had no important bearing on the research findings.

Characteristics of the Interview Sample

In view of the randomness of the Alberta sample and the importance of representative opinion in educational research, effort was expended to ensure that the principals selected for follow-up interviews would include important elements of the larger sample. As noted earlier, this strategy did not afford any statistical generalizability of interview response findings; however, it did help to ensure that a range of organizational and personal perspectives would be taken into account in this detailed investigation. To this end, the interview sample of ten principals was chosen with school setting, type and size (as measured by number of teachers) as well as gender of the principals in mind; as the data in Table 4.7 indicate, the selection accommodated those four aspects generally in proportion to their appearance in responses from the random sample.

Summary

The major part of this study was based upon questionnaire responses provided by a random sample of elementary school principals in Alberta and upon interview responses by a sub-sample of those principals.

Two-thirds of the respondents in the survey sample were principals of city schools,

Table 4.6

Organizational Characteristics of Schools and Personal Characteristics of Respondent and Non-Respondent Principals

Characteristic	Respondents (n= 112)	Non-Respondents (n=19)	
	%f	f	%f
School Setting			
City	66.1	14	73.7
Town	20.5	4	21.0
Rural	13.4	1	5.3
Type of School System			
Public District	50.0	8	42.1
Separate District	20.5	4	21.1
County	17.0	5	26.3
Division	12.5	2	10.5
Number of Full-Time Equivalent Teachers			
Fewer than 10	27.5	5	26.3
10 - 19	51.4	9	47.4
20 - 29	19.3	4	21.0
30 or more	1.8	1	5.3
Sex of Principal			
Female	19.6	2	10.5
Male	80.4	17	89.5

and half were employed in public school districts. Most of the schools provided educational services spanning the K-6 grade range. The mean number of students in the schools approximated 250, while the number of teachers averaged 14; most schools had either one vice-principal or none. Four-fifths of the principals were male, and most frequently they were 40-49 years of age. Their mean length of service as principals approached 12 years. A majority aspired only to the principalship, and most had at least five years of post-secondary education. These respondents seemed to be representative

Table 4.7

Organizational Characteristics of Schools and Personal Characteristics of Principals in the Interview Sample
(n = 10)

Characteristic	Questionnaire Sample	Interview Sample	
	%f	f	%f
School Setting			
City	66.1	6	60.0
Town	20.5	2	20.0
Rural	13.4	2	20.0
Type of School System			
Public District	50.0	4	40.0
Separate District	20.5	2	20.0
County	17.0	2	20.0
Division	12.5	2	20.0
Number of Full-Time Equivalent Teachers			
Fewer than 10	27.5	3	30.0
10 - 19	51.4	4	40.0
20 - 29	19.3	3	30.0
30 or more	1.8	–	–
Sex of Principal			
Female	19.6	2	20.0
Male	80.4	8	80.0

of the entire sample of elementary school principals in Alberta--at least in respect of attributes upon which comparisons could be made with non-respondents.

The interview sample of ten principals which was chosen approximated the appearance of known characteristics of respondents in the questionnaire sample.

CHAPTER 5

JOB SATISFACTION OF PRINCIPALS

The data obtained during the questionnaire and follow-up interview phases of this study were initially analyzed according to the three distinct foci of investigation: job satisfaction of elementary school principals, effectiveness of schools, and effectiveness of principals. This chapter presents the Alberta-wide findings in connection with job satisfaction.

The presentation deals first with perceptions of current job satisfaction. Second, it identifies demographic attributes that may be associated with the satisfaction that principals experience. Third, it details principals' attitudes about the importance of various job facets for the satisfaction of elementary school principals in Alberta. Fourth, it addresses the theoretical issue of whether respondents' job satisfaction ratings may be inherently self-weighted for importance. The purpose of the chapter is to provide information relating to the first seven research questions posed for this study, which are restated as follows:

1. To what extent do principals experience overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction?
2. To what extent do principals experience job satisfaction or dissatisfaction on individual job facets?
3. What job facets best predict overall job satisfaction of principals?
4. What is the nature of "sense of accomplishment" for principals and how does it relate to their overall job satisfaction?
5. What relationships exist between overall job satisfaction of principals and selected personal and organizational variables?
6. What job facets are most important for the overall job satisfaction of principals?
7. To what extent is the strength of principals' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with specific job facets directly associated with the importance of those facets? (In other

words, do the findings support the view that facet satisfaction is "self-weighted" for importance?)

The style of presentation adopted in this and the ensuing two chapters is the same: quantitative and qualitative findings are juxtaposed as logically complementary and distinctively important elements of a full description of each aspect of the findings. To highlight general patterns in the responses, each section includes an account of numerical findings; to add depth of knowledge and demonstrate the nature of consistent and divergent opinions, responses gleaned from analyses of open-ended questionnaire items and interview data are interspersed where appropriate. Three tables showing Pearson correlation coefficients between individual and overall scores on the three major variables are included at the end of the appendices.

Principals' Perceptions of Their Job Satisfaction

Quantifiable data regarding the 112 principals' existing levels of job satisfaction were analyzed in two ways. First, percentage frequencies and mean responses on overall job satisfaction and on 41 job facets were derived. Second, the data on overall satisfaction level were analyzed further according to selected organizational and personal characteristics (specified in Chapter 4) to check for systematic differences in satisfaction levels.

Overall and Facet Satisfaction

With regard to Research Questions 1 and 2, the questionnaire responses on one overall satisfaction item and on the items on satisfaction with 41 aspects of the job yielded results displayed in Tables 5.1 and 5.2. (To enhance readability, Table 5.2 and all subsequent tables that exceed one page in length appear in the appendices to this report. Nevertheless, each of these tables is numbered to match the relevant textual presentation of findings.) Each respondent rated overall and facet satisfaction according to a six-point scale ranging from 1, "highly dissatisfied," to 6, "highly satisfied." From these ratings, frequency and percentage frequency distributions, percentages satisfied (totals of "slightly," "moderately" and "highly satisfied" responses) and item means and standard deviations were calculated.

Table 5.1

Overall Job Satisfaction Levels of Principals
(n = 112)

Level of Overall Job Satisfaction	f	%f
1. Highly Dissatisfied	–	–
2. Moderately Dissatisfied	1	0.9
3. Slightly Dissatisfied	1	0.9
4. Slightly Satisfied	15	13.4
5. Moderately Satisfied	59	52.7
6. Highly Satisfied	36	32.1

Mean = 5.14; SD = 0.75

Some percentages in these tables do not add to 100, due to rounding.

As can be seen from Table 5.1, principals expressed a high level of overall satisfaction with their work as school leaders; with the exception of only two respondents, all reported experiencing some degree of job satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction. Indeed, the modal response of "moderately satisfied" was selected by 52.7% of the 112 principals, and 32.1% more pronounced themselves to be "highly satisfied" with their work. This clustering of responses at the top end of the six-point scale produced a mean rating of 5.14, with a standard deviation of 0.75.

Further understanding of this matter was obtained from the findings exhibited in Table 5.2. Perhaps the most outstanding but surprising outcome was that, of the 41 individual job facets investigated in the questionnaire, most were perceived to be satisfying for the principals in this study. There was, nevertheless, substantial variation both in individual ratings and in the mean levels of satisfaction derived from the various aspects of the job.

The most satisfying facets for principals related to their contacts with students and staff. Both the principal's working relationships with teachers and the principal's relationships with students earned mean ratings of 5.4, with 98% of respondents expressing satisfaction on these items. Most other personnel-related matters also had high scores on the satisfaction scale: the teaching competence of teachers (mean 5.2), satisfaction and morale of the staff (5.2), the principal's social relationships with teachers (5.0), the help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed (5.0) and the competence of teachers in handling professional duties outside their classrooms (5.0). The satisfaction and morale of students (5.0) and two role-related facets--the principal's responsibility for formal evaluation of teachers (5.1) and the principal's freedom to allocate teaching assignments (5.0)--were also relatively highly rated. In addition, five of the eight occupation-related matters were perceived to be particularly satisfying for these principals: attitudes of parents toward the school (5.1), the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator (5.1), successful completion of projects and tasks (5.1), the principal's social position in the community (5.0) and achievement of the principal's own professional objectives (5.0).

On the other hand, questionnaire items associated with the school principal's occupation, working conditions, role and involvement in the district attracted a greater variety of responses, leading to relatively lower mean ratings. All seven items on working conditions produced mean ratings little beyond the "slightly satisfied" level of 4; most notable were the facets relating to the number of hours the principal is required to work (4.2) and to the way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in the school system (4.3). Unlike some other job categories, responses on all working conditions items covered the whole range of ratings, with substantial numbers reporting extreme levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction; for example, only 71% of the respondents considered themselves to be satisfied with the number of hours they have to work. Apart from the principal's relationship with the superintendent (5.0), all district-related facets of the job had mean ratings below 5; satisfaction on these items was lowest on the methods used to evaluate principals (4.3), the principal's involvement in decision making in the jurisdiction (4.3)--a variable on which only 73% of principals expressed satisfaction--and school board expectations for the principal (4.4). The three occupation-related matters that had relatively low means were the effect of the job on the principal's personal life (4.3)--with which 26% were dissatisfied--opportunities for advancement as an administrator (4.5) and recognition by others of the principal's work (4.6).

Nevertheless, none of the 41 items constituted a pervasively dissatisfying job facet. While some respondents expressed slight, moderate or high dissatisfaction on many items, the weight of opinion (represented by item means) reflected some degree of general satisfaction on each facet of the job.

The follow-up interviews with principals in Alberta also provided some helpful information about job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In the first instance, these ten principals were requested to identify the facets of the job that gave them *most* satisfaction. A variety of responses was received, and most interviewees wanted to mention "a number of things." One principal could not prioritize: "I think that the satisfaction that you get most out of being a school principal is when you find that the school is running well, and there's a good atmosphere on staff, that you are dealing with the educational aspect as well as you can with the resources that you have, and that you're making some progress." Other respondents, however, were prepared to advance specific job facets that provided most satisfaction, and those responses showed considerable diversity.

For one principal, staff-student relationships were especially rewarding. She derived greatest job satisfaction from "the relationship you see between the staff and the students--in particular, the trust, I think, the feeling that staff give to kids that you believe they are capable." Attitudes of staff and students were also said to be very satisfying. One interviewee commented on staff members' commitment and concern for students--"the dedication of the elementary teaching staff to children rather than subjects." For another, satisfaction and effort of staff and students both provided considerable job satisfaction--"people enjoying school, whether they be students or teachers or the parents or support staff, and people working hard in a happy milieu. So it's kind of happy productivity." Two principals, on the other hand, experienced particular satisfaction in witnessing growth at school; one response included staff as well as students, whereas the other concentrated on pupils--"to see the growth of the students in the school--intellectually, socially . . . and, over the six years, to see the development of the skill level of the kids; some of it's maturational, but some of it's good teaching."

Other interviewees saw their personal involvement, recognition and accomplishments as most satisfying. For one, his relationships with staff and students were paramount: "It's working with kids, with children, and it's working with teachers to implement new programs that will challenge students." According to another, successful completion of tasks is central: "When I sit down with the staff and come up with a program, a finished product, then put it to the kids, use it with them . . . and if it's successful, that's what gives me satisfaction." Another interviewee valued most the acknowledgement that he receives for his contribution as a principal :

> It's knowing that what you're doing is appreciated by the staff, the school board, and the parents in particular. . . . the lift you get when you know that groups are behind you, and the school board sends a nice letter--well done, pat on the back, that kind of thing--that gives you a nice feeling. . . . It's not any one thing in particular that I do [to earn that recognition], but the things that you feel strongly about your school, if they're recognized--like, with a small school, the caring family atmosphere, the ambience of the school--the school climate--and if everybody's really happy about the school climate. . . . or when you get 95 to 99% of the parents [in a questionnaire] saying that they are very happy with what's going on. . . .

Four principals also referred to satisfaction being directly associated with their sense of accomplishment. One was unable to account for the nature or specific sources of that accomplishment. A second, however, saw coordination that leads to staff satisfaction as a focus of accomplishment:

> You can't always directly influence things because your role as principal is more of a coordinator of other people a lot, and you don't necessarily get pure satisfaction yourself from the job you do because it depends on how others respond to you and how they do the job. . . . [but] when you find that the staff are happy and enjoying the job, then you feel that you're accomplishing something as a coordinator of things.

A third found satisfaction in accomplishment of school goals: "It gives me a great deal of satisfaction to do planning, to have consultation in my planning, and then to see it carried out and see the results--the sense of achievement." And, when pressed about the nature of those results, he added, "I would see that as tied in with our initial goal setting, including student learning." A fourth respondent also referred to goal achievement as the primary source of job satisfaction. What was apparent in these responses was that a feeling of accomplishment seems to be linked with job satisfaction; yet the facets that generate that feeling seemed to be wide ranging.

Although the questionnaire revealed no pervasive sources of job dissatisfaction for principals, specific requests during interviews revealed some dissatisfying job facets. Two principals were most concerned about the disruptions of conflict and non-cooperation. For one, the associated sense of powerlessness causes most dissatisfaction--"when you can't control the outcome because of other factors that you can't control. . . . the students are not cooperating or the teachers are not cooperating or lack of resources or difficulty with parent groups." For the other, "conflict resolution, conflict with parents or with staff . . . or a child in an area of discipline. . . . [is] very time-consuming, very draining on the energy that you have."

Time was also "the biggest problem" for two other principals. One remarked that "I get dissatisfied when I can't keep up with the workload." The other was frustrated by time constraints on her capacity for innovation: "You have these ideas, and the school has ideas . . . except there is no time to do them properly. And I do not get any satisfaction out of doing a job poorly."

One interviewee found "trying to make change" especially dissatisfying. He commented on the barriers:

> The problem lies sometimes with staffs . . . sometimes with parents, and sometimes with school boards. They get into a routine that's comfortable; it's established, it doesn't require an awful lot of work, it seems to work alright, and so it's really difficult to change that.

Two others were most discouraged by many parents' lack of interest in the school and its educational task--a problem that was linked with "the frustration of motivating some children."

Three other principals in the interview study were most dissatisfied with factors external to the school. One commented on "the continual cutbacks that we're facing with budgetary restraints" as a crucial influence on his satisfaction. Another found the staff development constraints caused by small school size personally frustrating. The other was dissatisfied with the educational priorities of the school jurisdiction:

> At the present time, the thing that is most dissatisfying for me is the tendency to look at achievement rather than learning. . . . I find it very frustrating to set goals that are basically child-oriented and based on the area of child development and then having imposed on me expectations that tend to standardize children--whereas, our major focus would be to individualize. Achievement tests have become a political pawn; that's the whole problem; and, as soon as one set of trustees hears that it's doing less well than a board in another jurisdiction, then, of course, they want that remedied.

Best Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction

To derive further understanding of the variables most closely linked with overall job satisfaction for principals, the data were analyzed to identify the best predictors of the existing levels of satisfaction reported (Table 5.3). Using multiple regression analysis, individual facet satisfaction items were entered in stepwise fashion to determine the predictors that contributed significantly (at the .05 level) to the variance in overall job satisfaction. The listwise deletion associated with this procedure required the exclusion of principals who omitted one or more responses in the job satisfaction instrument; this resulted in an n of 92 for the regression analysis. Associated correlation coefficients were also based on these 92 respondents.

Table 5.3

Facet Satisfaction Items as Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction
(n = 92)

Predictor of Overall Job Satisfaction	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life	30.9	30.9	.56
2. The principal's social position in the community	40.7	9.8	.51
3. Authority associated with the principal's position	44.7	4.0	.45
4. Achievement of the principal's own professional objectives	47.5	2.8	.35

Four variables emerged as significant predictors of overall job satisfaction for elementary school principals. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life contributed almost 41% of the variance in overall satisfaction. The principal's social position in the community contributed a further 10%, the authority associated with the principal's position 4% more, and achievement of the principal's own professional objectives an extra 3%. In total, these four predictors accounted for almost 48% of the variance in the overall variable; no other facet contributed significantly to this understanding.

One shortcoming of this statistical technique, however, is the discounting of individual contributions by closely related variables that arises as a result of the stepwise entering procedure; hence, some variables which may correlate strongly with the overall satisfaction variables may not appear as important predictors. For this reason, it is also important to note the variables that correlated strongly with overall satisfaction and with the best predictors.

As noted in Table 5.3, the three best predictors all bore high individual correlations with overall job satisfaction of the principals in this study, and pairwise correlation analysis of the 112 respondents' ratings supported this finding: for predictor 1, r = .54; predictor 2, r = .47; predictor 3, r = .44. A Pearson correlation coefficient of .186 is required for statistical significance at the .05 level for a two-tailed test with an n of 112, and a coefficient of .243 for significance at the .01 level. Since the correlations that are reported throughout this and subsequent chapters are based upon an arbitrarily chosen minimum acceptable coefficient of .40, they all reflect probabilities of .00 and therefore are statistically significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Stepwise regression analysis masked the independent contributions of other facets, six of which also proved to be highly correlated with overall satisfaction:

1. the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator (r = .53);
2. opportunities for advancement as an administrator (r = .43);
3. the competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms (r = .43);
4. recognition by others of the principal's work (r = .42);
5. the principal's relationship with the superintendent (r = .42); and
6. satisfaction and morale of the staff (r = .40).

The best predictor, the effect of the job on the principal's personal life, exhibited correlations exceeding .40 with nine other facets:

1. recognition by others of the principal's work (r = .60);
2. the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator (r = .54);
3. the number of hours the principal is required to work (r = .53);
4. the principal's physical working conditions (r = .52);
5. opportunities for advancement as an administrator (r = .47);
6. the methods used to evaluate principals (r = .44);
7. the principal's social position in the community (r = .43);
8. availability of useful advice to assist the principal with problems (r = .43); and

9. the principal's relationship with the superintendent (r = .41).

The two strongest statistical associations exhibited an intercorrelation which helps to explain the omission of those variables from the regression results. Taken collectively, the nine leading facets also added substantial support to the emergence of the principal's own personal and professional life as central to overall job satisfaction experienced; teachers and students, though the greatest sources of facet satisfaction for principals, featured in none of these high correlations, and the appearance of working conditions and occupation- and district-related matters provided logical justification for the location of the best predictor of overall job satisfaction.

The second best predictor, the principal's social position in the community, also correlated strongly with nine other facets. Leading relationships were with the principal's social relationships with teachers (.47), the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator (.47) and authority associated with the principal's position (.46). Facets relating to the principal's working conditions, student-related matters and district-related matters were not represented among the high correlations.

Authority associated with the principal's position, the third best predictor, reflected high correlations with 14 other facets. Outstanding were the principal's freedom to change the school program (.64), the principal's relationships with central office staff other than the superintendent (.52), the principal's social position in the community (.46), the principal's freedom to allocate teaching assignments (.46) and the principal's relationship with the superintendent (.46).

Equally interesting among the item correlations, however, is the place of the fourth predictor of overall job satisfaction, achievement of the principal's own professional objectives. It had a correlation coefficient with the overall variable of only .35, and it had clear connections with no more than two other facets of the principal's work--the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator (.53) and recognition by others of the principal's work (.48). An obvious logical relationship inheres in these three variables. Nevertheless, the latter two variables, themselves excluded during regression because of their close links with more important predictors, correlated much more strongly with overall job satisfaction than did this fourth predictor. Therefore, despite its distinctive contribution to explanation of the overall level of satisfaction among elementary school principals, the place of this fourth predictor might be regarded as relatively inconsequential.

Though eliminated in the stepwise procedure, sense of accomplishment, the second most highly correlated variable with overall job satisfaction, exhibited strong relationships with many other variables: 13 other facets reflected item correlations exceeding .40. Indeed, this finding provided clear support for the inclusion of a research question specifically on the matter of sense of accomplishment, and further discussion of its nature and associated variables is deferred until the next section.

Other individual variables which correlated substantially with overall job satisfaction also bore noteworthy relationships with many facet items. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator was closely associated with school board expectations of the principal (.64), the methods used to evaluate the principal (.54) and 14 other variables. The competence of teachers in handing professional duties outside their classrooms correlated strongly with the other personnel-related matters, most notably with the attitudes of teachers toward change (.57) and attitudes toward professional improvement (.56). Recognition of the principal's work was closely related to the principal's sense of accomplishment (.64), the effect of the job on the principal's personal life (.60) and, to lesser degrees, 15 other variables. The principal's relationship with the superintendent was strongly linked with 13 other facets, most important of which were the principal's relationships with other central office staff (.63), the principal's sense of accomplishment (.56) and attitudes of school board administrators toward teachers and administrators. Finally, satisfaction and morale of the staff correlated markedly with attitudes of teachers toward change (.60), the competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms (.50), the principal's working relationships with teachers (.50) and five other variables. Perhaps the most significant finding from these item correlations, however, is the repeated appearance of a small array of variables as links between many job facets and overall job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Sense of Accomplishment

Prior research has shown the variable "sense of accomplishment" to be an important but largely unexplained dimension of the satisfaction that school principals and other workers derive from their jobs. For this reason, specific attention was directed toward this matter in Research Question 4.

As noted above, sense of accomplishment emerged again in this study as one of the central issues in job satisfaction for elementary school principals in Alberta. Regression analysis did not disclose this variable as an important predictor of overall job satisfaction; however, pairwise analysis showed it to have the second highest item correlation with the overall variable (r = .53). The omission of sense of accomplishment from the results of regression may be explained by its strong relationship (r = .54) with the effect of the job on the principal's personal life, which was the best predictor of overall satisfaction, and with the other three predictors: r = .47 with the principal's social position in the community; r = .40 with authority associated with the principal's position; and r = .53 with achievement of the principal's own professional objectives.

Sense of accomplishment also correlated strongly with satisfaction on nine other job facets:

1. recognition by others of the principal's work (r = .64);
2. the principal's relationship with the superintendent (r = .56);
3. the principal's freedom to change the school program (r = .51);
4. the competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms (r = .47);
5. successful completion of projects and tasks (r = .46);

6. the principal's relationships with other central office staff (r = .44);
7. opportunities for advancement as an administrator (r = .42);
8. attitudes of parents toward the school (r = .42); and
9. the principal's involvement in budget preparation (r = .40).

Indeed, items 1, 2 and 4, together with the best three predictors of overall satisfaction--which, as this discussion shows, were all closely related to sense of accomplishment--accounted for six of the seven variabies (other than sense of accomplishment itself) bearing correlation coefficients of more than .40 with overall job satisfaction. In this light, sense of accomplishment may be seen as a link between principals' overall job satisfaction and the job facets that are central to that affective state. Only satisfaction and morale of the staff, the least important of the seven correlates of overall satisfaction, was not clearly associated with the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator.

One of the associated variables, successful completion of projects and tasks was added to the job satisfaction instrument for the specific purpose of testing its relationship with sense of accomplishment. Exploratory interviews with principals had disclosed this as a facet of some importance for the accomplishment variable--and thereby perhaps also for administrators' overall job satisfaction. However, while the results of statistical analysis supported a relationship in this regard, this connection proved to be of less consequence than many others reported above. Furthermore, the correlation between successful completion of projects and tasks and overall job satisfaction was relatively low (r = .33). Consequently, no further special attention was devoted to this variable.

Some researchers have proposed that sense of accomplishment may link job satisfaction of administrators with organizational and/or leadership effectiveness. To probe the relevance of sense of accomplishment in this regard, this variable was correlated with the global and component measures of school effectiveness and principalship effectiveness obtained in this study (reported in Chapter 8). With regard to school effectiveness, sense of accomplishment exhibited a correlation coefficient of only .24. One school effectiveness dimension that displayed a substantial relationship with this variable was maintaining an appropriate school climate (.43)--a variable that, as the findings presented in Chapter 6 show, was the most critical aspect of school effectiveness to be disclosed in the study. At the same time, none of the other 37 dimensions of school effectiveness (all of which were judged by principals to be important to some degree) was so systematically related with the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator.

Correlation analysis with the various aspects of principals' effectiveness resulted in a moderate association between the principal's sense of accomplishment and overall effectiveness (.34); somewhat stronger links were established with three of the 29 specific dimensions: increasing the job satisfaction of staff (.46), fostering high morale among staff and students (.46) and providing feedback to staff (.40). In the course of investigating facet satisfaction items for association with the overall effectiveness of principals and with its central indices, sense of accomplishment attained no special significance. Its only clear association was with one of the major correlates of that overall variable, promoting high expectations of staff (.44).

In these analyses, however, successful completion of projects and tasks emerged as the job satisfaction item that was the best predictor of the overall effectiveness of principals and the second best predictor of overall effectiveness of schools. The clear orientation of that notion toward task fulfilment provides a logical basis for understanding its apparent capacity to link job satisfaction with effectiveness. On the other hand, that variable was dismissed in the discussion above on account of its tenuous relationship with overall job satisfaction. Likewise, its individual correlation coefficient with overall effectiveness of principals was only .38 and with overall effectiveness of schools .37. Hence, like sense of accomplishment and most other variables examined in Chapter 8, successful completion of projects and tasks moderated the performance-satisfaction link in only a minor and indirect way, and it was judged to have little explanatory power in this regard.

The centrality of sense of accomplishment to principals' overall job satisfaction, however, justified further investigation of the meaning of this variable during follow-up interviews. Analysis of questionnaire responses had revealed many statistically supportable connections, yet causal relationships and knowledge of the substance of this elusive variable remained to be ascertained. Most fundamentally, the questionnaire study had afforded no evidence of whether sense of accomplishment is a specific contributor to overall job satisfaction or a dimension of the resultant satisfaction itself; the survey style of inquiry that was used permitted only the former treatment, that is, one that was consistent with recent studies in this domain.

The interviews with principals provided some insight about the nature of this variable. All ten principals enthusiastically supported sense of accomplishment as an important dimension of their satisfaction. Beyond this observation, however, perceptions varied markedly. Indeed, despite the previous willingness of questionnaire respondents to rate sense of accomplishment as a specific job facet, all principals who were interviewed experienced considerable difficulty in identifying and defining this aspect of their work--a finding which had also been apparent during the exploratory interviews. Some interviewees tentatively posited facets such as goal achievement, "getting half-way through your 'to do' list," "working with teachers," having "good relationships with parents, staff and students," and "new procedures and policies that we've been able to put together," as sources of a feeling of accomplishment which "lead to," or constitute "one of the contributors to," overall satisfaction. Another principal advanced "the challenge of setting goals" as a direct contributor to both overall satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment. Others viewed satisfaction and accomplishment as related but distinct concepts: "Sense of accomplishment, generally, to me, is something external: satisfaction is internal"; no causal or other connection could be identified. Other interviewees were unable to distinguish satisfaction and accomplishment at all--"it's [sense of accomplishment] the same thing as job satisfaction"--preferring to regard accomplishment as a characteristic of the satisfaction derived from any aspect of the job.

The only perception that enjoyed the support of any number of the interviewees was the view that sense of accomplishment relates to completion of discrete tasks: "It's just those parts [of the job] that you can finish; you can be done with it and they're out of the way." In contrast, job satisfaction is "an ongoing thing. You don't necessarily have a sense of accomplishment, because the child who's coping well and doing well today may not be tomorrow." Another respondent also considered that

> job satisfaction can come from other sources too--I suppose there's satisfaction in knowing that I and my staff are very professional, very hard working and do the very best to motivate and inspire children. That would be satisfaction. I'm not sure if what we're doing here every day would be an accomplishment.

Despite the apparent reasonableness of these assertions, some respondents contended that "ongoing" aspects of the job do afford them a sense of accomplishment even while they are happening. For example, one principal considered that "sense of accomplishment, too, means just being in the class, having contact with many children during the day." On the other hand, another respondent argued that a sense of accomplishment may encompass even more than job satisfaction; and another considered that, for some principals, a sense of accomplishment may even be associated with a complacent feeling of "not needing to do anything."

The overriding impression obtained from these interview responses was that distinctions among overall satisfaction, sense of accomplishment, and their individual sources are complex, extensive and perhaps so abstract and personal as to be beyond the capacity of individuals to identify and express with certainty and accuracy. As the perceptions reported in Chapter 3 indicate, similar outcomes had already been obtained from the exploratory interviews. Indeed, further reflection upon the statistical and interview analysis results may be viewed as supporting this finding: regression and correlation analyses revealed strong connections between sense of accomplishment and a wide range of job facets, and the interviews resulted in still more--as well as more individual--relationships between this variable and other aspects of the job.

Relationships Between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics

Research Question 5 called for identification of possible links between job satisfaction and certain fundamental demographic attributes associated with schools and characteristics of principals in Alberta. Comparison of satisfaction means according to each of those variables revealed certain interesting and important differences in the levels of satisfaction reported by principals. At the outset of this section, it should be noted that statistical significance of differences was tested using the Scheffé ANOVA test at the .10 level for instances of three or more groups and using the *t*-test where only two groups were compared. Although inter-group differences were found during this stage of data analysis, none proved to be statistically significant. (Nevertheless, significance test results appear in the following tables, both to emphasize this statistical finding and for the sake of consistency with subsequent chapters wherein statistical significance of some variables was established.)

School setting. Two organizational characteristics that were examined for differences in satisfaction were the geographical setting and jurisdiction of the schools in the sample; response means and standard deviations are reported in Table 5.4. Principals in the city schools had the highest mean satisfaction rating (5.23 on the six-point scale), but also the greatest spread of satisfaction levels (S.D. 0.79). Those in rural schools were marginally less satisfied (mean 5.07; S.D. 0.59), followed by the principals working in town locations (mean 4.91; S.D. 0.67).

Principals who were interviewed also considered that school setting has some impact on principals' job satisfaction. One remarked that, "I've worked in inner city

Table 5.4

Means of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals Classified by Selected Organizational Characteristics (n = 112)

Organizational Characteristic	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.[1]
School Setting				
1. City	74	5.23	0.79	–
2. Town	23	4.91	0.67	
3. Rural	15	5.07	0.59	
Type of School System				
1. Public District	56	5.23	0.83	–
2. Separate District	23	5.04	0.71	
3. County	19	4.89	0.57	
4. Division	14	5.29	0.61	

[1] In this and succeeding tables, statistical significance was determined by ANOVA analysis, except where only two groups were involved; in those instances, *t*-tests were used, and this is mentioned in accompanying notes.

schools, and my job satisfaction was a lot less than here." Another regarded the geographical isolation of rural schools from their parents as a source of frustration and dissatisfaction. A principal in a small town location, on the other hand, considered that he "couldn't be as happy" in a city school. These responses reflect the intervention of personal preference in perceptions of satisfaction and school setting.

School system. The satisfaction mean (5.23) and standard deviation (0.83) were also high for principals in public school districts; in view of the many schools of this type in Edmonton and Calgary, this result is to be expected. Slightly higher still, however, was the satisfaction experienced by principals in school divisions; and the lower standard deviation (0.61) indicates more consistent satisfaction ratings by principals in that group. The 19 principals in county contexts displayed the lowest overall satisfaction and the lowest intra-group variation in those responses (mean 4.89; S.D. 0.57).

School size. Overall satisfaction levels were also compared according to three measures of school size. Inspection of Table 5.5 reveals a small variation in job satisfaction according to the number of students enrolled. Schools in the middle range (200-299) were associated with a higher mean level of satisfaction (5.28): schools with extremely large (400 or more students) or small (fewer than 100) numbers had the lowest mean (both 5.00). Satisfaction of principals varied substantially more in the larger schools than in those with fewer enrolments: in schools with 300-399 students the standard deviation was 0.95, and in schools with 400 or more pupils the standard deviation was 1.00; elsewhere, this measure of spread did not exceed 0.63. Satisfaction levels declined with increasing numbers of staff. Those in schools with fewer than ten full-time-equivalent teachers had consistently high ratings; their mean responses were highest (5.17) and the standard deviation of those responses (0.59) was lowest. Despite greater variation in their responses, principals in schools with more teachers had only slightly lower mean levels of satisfaction (5.13 for schools with 10-19 teachers; 5.09 for schools with 20 or more). Principals who had the support of one vice-principal (mean satisfaction rating 5.20) were more satisfied than those with none (5.10) or with two or three deputies (5.00). At the same time, overall job satisfaction among principals with more than one vice-principal also differed considerably (S.D. 1.41).

During the follow-up interviews, one principal specifically referred to his school's small size as a source of dissatisfaction:

> As a principal of a small school, the sense of isolation is frustrating. One of the things that small schools really miss is things like grade-level meetings. I've got one grade 1 and 2 teacher, and there's no opportunity for that teacher--or a very limited opportunity--to meet with other grade 1 or grade 2 teachers. So the ideas, the friendly rivalry between classes--that doesn't happen. And I find that personally a problem.

Later in the interview, he returned to this matter, noting that "There are not the challenges in a small school." A principal in a larger school supported this view, but added that "a principal can also bite off more than he can chew. . . . a school double or triple this size

. . . would be stressful--not satisfying."

Table 5.5

Means of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals Classified by Selected School Size Characteristics

Characteristic of School Size	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
Number of Students (n = 108)				
1. Fewer than 100	16	5.00	0.63	–
2. 100 - 199	27	5.15	0.60	
3. 200 - 299	25	5.28	0.61	
4. 300 - 399	27	5.15	0.95	
5. 400 or more	13	5.00	1.00	
Number of Full-Time Equivalent Teachers (n = 109)				
1. Fewer than 10	30	5.17	0.59	–
2. 10 - 19	56	5.13	0.79	
3. 20 or more	23	5.09	0.85	
Number of Vice-Principals (n = 107)				
1. 0	42	5.10	0.62	–
2. 1	55	5.20	0.68	
3. 2 - 3	10	5.00	1.41	

Personal characteristics of principals. Two fundamental attributes--sex and age of principals--were used to assess possible connections between the satisfaction levels and personal characteristics of incumbents. As the data in Table 5.6 show, the relatively small number of female elementary school principals consistently rated their overall job satisfaction (mean 5.41; S.D. 0.59) higher than did their male counterparts (mean 5.08; S.D. 0.77). Principals over 50 years of age (mean 5.31) were more satisfied than younger principals (mean 5.10 for principals under 40 years; 5.08 for those 40-49). On the other hand, satisfaction levels in the 40-49 year range (S.D. 0.83) and those 50 or older (0.85) varied markedly when compared with the younger group (0.40).

Perceptions of principals who were interviewed tended to contradict the finding

Table 5.6

Means of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals Classified by Personal Characteristics of Principals
(n = 112)

Personal Characteristic	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
Sex[1]				
1. Female	22	5.41	0.59	–
2. Male	90	5.08	0.77	
Age				
1. Younger than 40	30	5.10	0.40	–
2. 40 - 49	53	5.08	0.83	
3. 50 or older	29	5.31	0.85	

1. Statistical significance analyzed by *t*-test.

about age and job satisfaction. The common view was that, "As you get older you'd be less likely to cope [with the hectic pace of the principalship, so] there'd be more chance that stress-related aspects of the job would get to you." One principal added that, "you begin to get less satisfaction the older you get . . . [as] a product of keeping repeating things. After you've done the job for a long time, then the novelty does wear off to some degree." An older principal, however, expressed a contrasting view: "The younger, more ambitious principals may be attempting more and may not be as satisfied. . . . you'd be more likely to feel more satisfied later in your career, because you've got a better idea of what's realistic."

Career aspirations of principals. As noted in Chapter 4, principals were invited to report their career aspirations for the long term. Those who aspired only to principalship were slightly more satisfied (mean rating 5.17) in their current positions than were those whose ambitions lay elsewhere (5.11). This finding is shown in Table 5.7.

At interview one principal observed that, "If we are upwardly mobile, if we are setting goals . . . and we pay attention to our own growth, then that, indeed, should give

Table 5.7

Means of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals Classified
by Long-Term Career Aspirations of Principals
(n = 100)

Career Aspiration	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.[1]
1. Principalship	63	5.17	0.77	–
2. Other Aspirations	37	5.11	0.70	

1. Statistical significance analyzed by *t*-test.

greater satisfaction." In contrast, another principal expressed a viewpoint that supported the statistical findings: "If you think, 'I'm locked into this position and I want to be principal of [name of a large] School and I'm not going to get there,' I could see it affecting your job satisfaction." A colleague in another school also judged himself to be more satisfied because "I'm happy with what I've got; I don't want anything more."

Experience as principals. The information provided in Table 5.8 reveals that job satisfaction was highest among respondents in their first year of principalship (mean 5.42). With regard to experience in the present position, satisfaction progressively declined for those in the second (5.35) or third year (4.83)--although ratings for the latter group varied markedly (S.D. 1.11)--but increased again for principals in the four-six range (5.22) and was still higher for those with 7-9 years of experience in the same school (5.40). Beyond nine years, principalship was associated with a pattern of diminishing job satisfaction. However, the same cannot be said of equivalent experience in other schools: job satisfaction was highest (mean 5.32) and most consistently so (S.D. 0.48, compared with a minimum of 0.67 in all other prior experience categories) for the respondents with at least nine years of background in previous principalships. Even so, when all such experience was considered, incumbents in their first (mean 5.43) or second year (5.25) of school leadership were most satisfied of all the principals in the study. Principals in the 11-15 year bracket of total experience as principals (5.20) were also relatively high in the overall job satisfaction comparison.

Table 5.8

Means of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals Classified by Years of Experience as Principals
(n = 110)

Years of Experience	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
In Present Position				
1. 1	12	5.42	0.67	-
2. 2	20	5.35	0.59	
3. 3	12	4.83	1.11	
4. 4 - 6	23	5.22	0.60	
5. 7 - 9	10	5.40	0.52	
6. 10 - 12	19	5.21	0.63	
7. 13 or more	14	4.57	0.85	
In Prior Principalship				
1. 0	38	5.08	0.67	-
2. 1 - 4	22	5.14	0.83	
3. 5 - 8	25	5.12	0.97	
4. 9 or more	25	5.32	0.48	
Total Years in Principalship				
1. 1	7	5.43	0.79	-
2. 2	8	5.25	0.46	
3. 3 - 5	11	5.09	0.54	
4. 6 - 10	27	5.15	0.95	
5. 11 - 15	25	5.20	0.58	
6. 16 - 20	17	5.12	0.78	
7. 21 or more	15	5.00	0.85	

In support of the latter finding, interview responses tended to favour the contribution of experience to job satisfaction. As one respondent explained, knowledge of prior situations, decisions and outcomes gives principals greater confidence in fulfilling their responsibilities.

Post-secondary education of principals. Results of cross-tabulation of overall job satisfaction according to principals' educational background in post-secondary institutions are displayed in Table 5.9. Almost half of the elementary school principals in this study had had at least six years of higher education. Those with five years, however, recorded the highest mean level of satisfaction (5.27), although also the widest variation in ratings (S.D. 0.96, compared with 0.62 and 0.69 for the other two groups). Fewer years of post-secondary educational background were attended by relatively lower overall job satisfaction.

Table 5.9

Means of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals Classified
by Years of Post-Secondary Education of Principals
(n = 110)

Years of Post-Secondary Education	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
1. 4 or fewer	32	4.94	0.62	–
2. 5	26	5.27	0.96	
3. 6 or more	52	5.19	0.69	

Importance of Job Facets for Overall Satisfaction

The sixth question posed for investigation in this study concerned the importance of various aspects of the elementary school principal's job for the attainment of job satisfaction overall. Findings in this regard are reported in Table 5.10.

A major finding is the respondents' recognition of all 41 job facets as consequential for the overall job satisfaction of elementary school principals. This is not to say that all facets could be ranked equally, or that all respondents shared the majority opinion. Inspection of item means, however, indicates that the various items attracted mean ratings of 2.6 upwards on the four-point scale used, reflecting a collective view that all aspects were judged to be of at least "moderate" importance. Job facets that were generally thought to be most important for overall satisfaction were personnel-related matters. The principal's working relationships with teachers and the teaching competence of teachers were both assigned extremely high weightings by all but one respondent, with the resultant mean ratings being 4.0.. Satisfaction and morale of the staff (mean 3.9) and the help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed (3.9) also attracted particularly high ratings. One noteworthy exception was the relatively low rating of the principal's social relationships with teachers: this was judged to be important by only 63% of the respondents and was accorded a mean rating of only 2.8. Student-related matters rated consistently highly for principals' job satisfaction: all four variables examined received almost unqualified support as important, and the mean of each was 3.8. Two occupation-related matters also deserve note: all respondents rated the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator and attitudes of parents toward the school as important--88% viewing each as "extremely important"--and these received mean ratings of 3.9. Successful completion of projects and tasks followed close behind (mean 3.8). One role-related facet, the principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school (3.8) also received high ratings of importance for principals' satisfaction. Also among the top ten mean ratings in connection with importance were the availability of clerical staff to assist the principal (3.8) and successful completion of projects and tasks (3.8).

One relatively low importance rating has already been mentioned. Least important was another social dimension of the principal's role--the principal's social position in the community--about which opinion was divided. A little more than half (53%) of the respondents considered this facet to be "moderately important" for the principal's job satisfaction, but 37% thought otherwise; indeed, this variable alone attracted a substantial collection (12%) of responses of "not important." Other aspects of the job which received comparatively low support were opportunities for advancement as an administrator (mean 3.1), the principal's involvement in decision making at the jurisdiction level (3.2) and the two remuneration items, namely, the principal's salary and contractual fringe benefits (both 3.2). Nevertheless, although the foregoing items were less strongly supported than others, no job facet had a mean rating below the scale mean and all were judged to be "moderately" or "extremely important" by substantial majorities of respondents.

In addition to assigning ratings on predetermined job facets, a small proportion of the respondents took advantage of the opportunity provided in the questionnaire to advance and rate importance and satisfaction on facets of their own. In some instances, attention was focussed on constraints on satisfaction; in others, principals advanced facets that served only to reinforce the relevance of some of the foregoing variables. By way of example, one principal identified the place of relationships between the principal and the superintendent and central office staff; he emphasized that the principal's job satisfaction is affected markedly by the "support and caring attitude" displayed by central office personnel, and that "parents, school, kids are wonderful, but when your school's senior administration (C.O.) is so poor and lacks dedication and don't [sic] show a caring relationship, it affects your morale." Further to these comments, the following additional facets were also proposed.

Three respondents contended that the principal's job satisfaction cannot be severed from personal life and guidance; one referred to the "support of spouse," another to "personal attitudes and commitments" of the principal, and the third to three related dimensions--"healthy, capable self image," "supportive system of family and friends," and "mentors and models." To four principals, job satisfaction is also contingent upon time commitments and obligations associated with the position. One merely added "time" to the list of working conditions, another referred to "teaching and administrative time," a third wrote of the extent of the principal's "teaching assignment" as a factor affecting job satisfaction, and a fourth added the commitment of "extra-curricular activities" as an imposition that affects the satisfaction derived from the administrator's work. Certain environmental elements--all seemingly beyond the control of the principal--were also cited as important influences on job satisfaction. These influences included "socio-economic characteristics of the community," "parental involvement in the school," "availability of support programs" in the system and the effectiveness of those agencies, the "attitude of School Board trustees," "central office respect for the principal's opinions," as well as externally imposed "dramatic changes in education." One final facet that may give the principal cause for satisfaction was "fulfilment from academic success."

One open-ended questionnaire response also made reference to successful initiatives at the jurisdiction and provincial levels that have enhanced the satisfaction of principals in one region:

> The job satisfaction for [district name] principals has been altered by the practice of (1) decentralized budgetting--each school is allocated the majority of funds for the school operation. We have a greater degree of decision-making about *many matters* as compared to other principals in the province. (2) govt designated *Community Schools*. As principal of a Com. School, I am much more involved with inter-agency matters and the full utilization of our building on a 12 month basis.

Since the respondents posited these variables themselves, it was not surprising to find that ratings on the overall job satisfaction importance scale were in most instances "extremely important"; satisfaction on each factor likewise tended to be high, reflecting seemingly major sources of job satisfaction for the individual principals concerned. The infrequency with which these additional responses were offered suggested that most respondents may not be similarly affected, and therefore those perceptions were not included in the quantitative analysis. Nevertheless, such isolated additional responses do underscore the distinctive aspects of individual attitudes and organizational circumstances and add a personal flavour to the findings. One principal's "additional comments" about job satisfaction also serve as an indicator of the responses of many about overall feelings of satisfaction: "I am satisfied with my position. Our school has become, in my humble opinion, a child-centred school. Over the past few years we have worked hard to do that. . . . I'm a happy person."

Recognizing that large numbers of relatively important and less important facets could not be explored in detail at interview, but wishing to discover more about the sources of job satisfaction, two leading job facets--the principal's working relationships with teachers and the teaching competence of teachers--and the two lowest rated facets--the principal's social relationships with teachers and social standing in the community--were isolated for further attention as part of the ten follow-up interviews.

Most of the ten principals supported the relative importance of these job facets for overall job satisfaction of principals. All were particularly supportive of the central place of working relationships with teachers. As one interviewee remarked, "A principal always works through the teachers, and so you have to have an excellent and helping working relationship with those teachers. . . . So my satisfaction depends on how well the teachers work with each other and me." Such positive relationships were described by one principal as "a trust that I'm there to help them." Another likewise observed, "I like to think of it as a collegial relationship--one that's built on trust and mutual support." One respondent further explained that "good" working associations with teachers can arise either "because they respect what you're doing" or "because you leave them alone"; he indicated that only the former provides real satisfaction for the principal.

All respondents also agreed that the teaching competence of teachers is a high priority issue; a typical comment was, "To me, one of the main sources of satisfaction is the competence of teachers." One principal saw this facet as necessarily related to the matter of good working relationships, but he was "not as concerned with teaching competence because I think you can work on it." Another principal, on the other hand, saw competence as more critical for her job satisfaction:

> I know from experience that incompetent teachers do cause a person [herself] stress . . . because parents know . . . and, if you're keeping them on you've got to justify that. . . . In one year, we lost two that were just pains in the side, and they were replaced by two excellent teachers. What a difference! It was just so nice--the atmosphere of the school changed, everything changed, and you breathe easy.

The relatively low ranking of the principal's social standing in the community was accepted by most principals who were interviewed. The most common opinion was exemplified in this comment of a city principal:

> As a school principal in this community, there's no real expectation from the community that I go to the community events--that I become a member of the community. Because it's not an important part of my role as a principal, then it doesn't have a great effect on my satisfaction. . . . But, if you're in a smaller community, I'd say, definitely it would be important. . . . in small towns, the teachers are generally held in quite high esteem.

In support of this view, a principal from a rural location contended that "Social standing in the community, I think, is *very* important. This community is very supportive and very involved. . . . If people like us, we get along a lot happier in the community." At the same time, the principal of a community school in a large city also expressed a similar perception: "This is where you may find a difference in a community schools as compared to a regular school. I would worry about the principal's standing in the community as an educational leader."

Most of the interviewees concurred about the relatively low importance of social relationships with teachers. One saw regular social contact with staff as merely "impractical" and was therefore not unduly concerned about the satisfaction that might be derived from that source. Another indicated that, as principal, she felt obliged to avoid social relationships with teachers: "There is a tension there because I am the person who is their line officer; and, if they happen to do something foolish in a social situation, then it might colour my thoughts of them in a school situation." A city colleague also commented on the danger of "familiarity breeding contempt." On the other hand, the principal of a rural school referred to the "philosophy sessions, Friday afternoon at the pub or at somebody's house" as important for his overall feeling of satisfaction in the organization. Moreover, when asked whether the school setting had any bearing on this perception, he remarked, "I think it's important anywhere. I think you have to see the other side of the person." Another colleague in a small community agreed: "I go because I enjoy being with them."

Facet Satisfaction and Importance

The importance ratings described in the previous section reflect respondents' appraisals about a theoretical state, for they concern the relevance of various job facets for helping to maximize overall job satisfaction. It is also interesting to compare the rankings with the variables which earlier analysis established as closely related to the existing state of job satisfaction for respondents.

Prominent among the high importance ratings were the personnel-related and student-related matters, as well as the principal's sense of accomplishment and attitudes of parents toward the school. Current job satisfaction levels also tended to be highest on many of the same variables, suggesting that principals may be most satisfied on the dimensions that they also judge to be most important for enhancing job satisfaction. Rank-ordered correlation analysis using the Spearman procedure supported this general finding ($r = .52$; $p < .01$).

Table 5.11 clarifies this matter by comparing data about the ten most satisfying job facets with the data about the ten most important facets identified by respondents. There was considerable congruence in the highest mean ratings of satisfaction and importance. Most important for overall job satisfaction and most satisfying of all the facets was the principal's working relationships with teachers. Six other items which led the satisfaction ratings were also commended as highly important aspects for principals' level of satisfaction overall. On the other hand, the principal's responsibility for formal evaluation of teachers, though particularly satisfying, did not appear among the high importance items for satisfaction. Moreover, the principal's social relationships with teachers and social position in the community were two other very satisfying facets for many principals, yet of the 41 items rated for importance these were the lowest. A matter of some concern was the appearance of two high-importance facets which were relatively low on satisfaction, namely, availability of clerical staff to assist the principal and the principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school.

Table 5.11

Comparison of the Ten Most Satisfying and Ten Most Important Job Facets

Job Facet	Satisfaction		Importance	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
1. The principal's working relationships with teachers	5.411	1	3.991	1.5
2. The principal's relationships with students	5.405	2	3.847	7
3. The teaching competence of teachers	5.234	3	3.991	1.5
4. Satisfaction and morale of the staff	5.152	4	3.929	3
5. The principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator	5.109	5	3.884	4.5 0
6. The principal's responsibility for formal teacher evaluation	5.090	6	3.545	26
7. Attitudes of parents toward the school	5.071	7	3.884	4.5
8. Successful completion of projects and tasks	5.063	8	3.804	10
9. The principal's social relationships with teachers	5.045	9	2.777	40
10. The principal's social position in the community	5.038	10	2.625	41
11. The help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed	5.000	12	3.875	6
12. Availability of clerical staff to assist the principal	4.723	23	3.820	9
13. The principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school	4.527	33	3.839	8

Further insight was obtained through comparison of most important job facets with those that emerged as either best predictors of, or most highly correlated variables with, overall job satisfaction. None of the four best predictors was among the ten most important job facets for overall satisfaction; on the contrary, the rankings of those predictors were 20th (predictor 1), 41st (2), 30th (3) and 24th (4). Two of the five other facets which bore high independent correlations with overall satisfaction were among the highest importance ratings: the principal's sense of accomplishment was ranked fourth in relative importance, while satisfaction and morale of the staff was third. The other three strongly related variables reported earlier, however, were 17th, 35th and 28th in order of importance.

The comparison of highest ranked items on satisfaction and importance indicates that principals may derive their generally high current levels of overall job satisfaction from many highly valued job facets, but that other aspects of the job afford useful avenues for additional improvement. However, the comparisons of importance ratings with the best predictors and best correlates suggested that the dimensions of the job responsible for most difference in existing satisfaction levels are not those that tend to stand out in principals' minds as being most crucial for overall job satisfaction.

One final procedure corroborated this second finding. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to identify the items whose *importance* ratings were associated with the highest percentages of variance in the current levels of overall job satisfaction. One item alone--the principal's responsibility for formal evaluation of teachers--contributed significantly in this analysis; even so, that item contributed only 6.3% of the variance. The correlation of every facet with overall satisfaction also proved inconsequential--the strongest relationship recorded was .25. This reinforced the conclusion that current feelings of overall job satisfaction are not generally consistent with the job facets that are perceived to be most central to the maximization of satisfaction.

Need for Importance Ratings

The possible redundancy of importance ratings was at issue in Research Question 7. As discussed in Chapter 2, some researchers have proposed that workers' assessments of the importance of various facets for overall satisfaction are reflected in the strength of their responses about current satisfaction levels. Adequate exploration of *individual* response strength called for more than the foregoing search for consistent patterns of rank ordering and variability. Hence, respondents' ratings on the two scales were cross-tabulated to identify the concurrence of extreme ratings of satisfaction and importance on each facet. The results of this analysis appear in Table 5.12.

Inspection of this table reveals that facets rated highest on the importance scale were *not* assigned consistently extreme satisfaction ratings; the frequency of this correspondence on the various items ranged from 12.7% to 50.5% of respondents. On "not important" responses, consistency with extreme satisfaction ratings was more apparent, although the trend was far from consistent and the numbers of responses involved were insufficient to defend any argument on the ground of "self-weighting" for importance. It may be concluded from the cross-tabulation analysis that ratings of importance are not reflected in the strength of respondents' satisfaction ratings and cannot be relied upon for that purpose.

Summary

Principals in this study expressed "moderate satisfaction" with their work. Most of the 41 facets specified in the questionnaire emerged as generally satisfying for principals, although there was considerable variation both in individual responses and in mean levels of satisfaction derived from each aspect. Most satisfying facets were the principal's working relationships with teachers and relationships with students. Least satisfying were the number of hours the principal is required to work and the way in which teachers and boards consult about the working conditions of teachers. Interview responses tended to confirm the quantitative findings about most satisfying job facets and provided clearer understanding of those rewarding features; a number of dissatisfying factors, such as personnel conflicts, lack of time, resistance to change, and budgetary restraint, were also contributed.

The four best predictors of principals' current overall job satisfaction were the effect of the job on the principal's personal life, the principal's social position in the community, the authority associated with the principal's position, and achievement of the principal's professional objectives. However, six other facets also correlated strongly with overall satisfaction, and the best predictors and strongest individual correlates each bore close relationships with many other variables.

Statistical analysis showed that overall job satisfaction was closely related to the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator--a variable that also seemed to link the global variable with many other facets of the job. Closer examination of this matter in interviews, however, revealed principals' uncertainty about the meaning of sense of accomplishment.

Principals in city locations, school divisions and public school districts, and medium-size schools tended to report slightly higher satisfaction levels than did principals in other circumstances. Female principals, principals over 50 years of age, newly appointed principals, and principals with five years of post-secondary education tended to express higher overall satisfaction than did other principals.

Questionnaire findings revealed all 41 job facets to be of importance for principals' overall job satisfaction. Personnel-related matters emerged as highest, although many other aspects of the job also attracted high importance ratings. On the other hand, the principal's social position in the community, the principal's social relationships with teachers, and a small array of other facets were of less importance for many respondents. Individual principals advanced further job facets that were of consequence for their own satisfaction at school.

Comparison of the most important job facets with those that were most closely associated with current levels of overall job satisfaction revealed some congruence but also some noteworthy disparities. It appears that, at this time, the satisfaction of many principals is influenced by job features that are not of prime importance; conversely, the substantial contribution of other aspects to their satisfaction remains unrealized.

Analysis also revealed that principals' attitudes about the importance of facets were not systematically reflected in satisfaction ratings and, therefore, cannot be inferred from those responses.

CHAPTER 6

EFFECTIVENESS OF SCHOOLS

The second major focus of the study was the issue of effectiveness of elementary schools. This chapter reports the findings from analysis of those data. As in the previous chapter, the detailed individual information gleaned from open-ended responses and interviews is interspersed within the presentation of statistical findings.

The importance of investigating organizational effectiveness in schools has already been considered in the light of relevant literature. Principals and other respondents in this study also expressed particular interest in the topic of school effectiveness as well as some uncertainty about the nature of this phenomenon. One principal's "additional comments" on his questionnaire are indicative:

> I frequently wonder how my school measures up against similar institutions in the province. What does one use as a criteria [sic]? If you look at academic achievement my students usually achieve 'average' standings in provincial and zone exams. In my five years of administration I have had only one serious confrontation with a member of staff. Visitors to the school compliment us on the atmosphere in the school. Vandalism is non-existent--or virtually so. We are what you might term a "good school." I believe we are in danger of becoming complacent but you must measure that against making changes for change sake!

According to the following questionnaire remark by a teacher, the issue of school effectiveness also holds a special interest for teachers: "I am glad that someone is doing research in this area for it has recently (last 2 or 3 years) become a common topic of conversation in and out of staff rooms."

The following account deals in turn with the following six research questions:

8. To what extent are schools effective overall?
9. To what extent are schools effective on individual criteria?
10. What criteria best predict the overall effectiveness of schools?
11. What relationships exist between overall effectiveness of schools and selected personal and organizational variables?

12. What are the most important criteria for assessing the effectiveness of schools?
13. What factors constrain the effectiveness of schools?

In attending to these questions, attention was given only to the responses of school principals across Alberta. Although perceptions about school effectiveness were also obtained from other educational interest groups, those data were limited to the Edmonton region; therefore, presentation of those findings is deferred until Chapter 9.

Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

To examine the current state of effectiveness in elementary schools, principals were invited to rate the overall effectiveness of their schools as well as effectiveness on criteria representing performance in specific domains of school life. Quantifiable response data from ~~the 112~~ questionnaires returned were analyzed in two ways. First, percentage frequencies and mean ratings on the overall variable and on 38 specified effectiveness criterion variables were calculated to identify patterns of effectiveness in the sample of Alberta elementary schools. Second, these data were further analyzed according to the organizational and personal characteristics mentioned previously, in order to determine systematic differences in the levels of effectiveness in schools.

Overall and Criterion Effectiveness of Schools

Research Questions 8 and 9 involved identification of existing levels of effectiveness in schools--both in a global sense and with respect to the various dimensions that literature and prior investigation had shown to be elements of generally effective performance. Table 6.1 portrays principals' perceptions of current overall effectiveness, based on a six-point rating scale of 1, "highly ineffective," to 6, "highly effective." The high mean rating (5.16) and the clustering of virtually all responses at the top levels of the scale--only 4.5% of the 110 respondents rated their schools as less than "moderately effective"--reflects a common perception among elementary school principals that their schools were achieving at a high level overall.

Table 6.1

Overall Effectiveness Levels of Schools
(n = 110)

Level of Overall School Effectiveness	f	%f
1. Highly Ineffective	–	–
2. Moderately Ineffective	–	–
3. Slightly Ineffective	1	0.9
4. Slightly Effective	4	3.6
5. Moderately Effective	81	73.6
6. Highly Effective	24	21.8
Mean = 5.16; SD = 0.52		

As Table 6.2 shows, however, perceptions of effectiveness varied according to the criteria upon which respondents rated their schools. Schools were given highest ratings on maintaining an appropriate school climate (mean 5.4), maintaining communication with the community (5.3), obtaining support from the community (5.3) and acknowledging the achievements of staff and students (5.3). Other variables that were highly regarded focussed on student- and staff-related matters: encouraging academic success, maximizing achievement in reading and writing, maintaining high expectations of staff, and emphasizing academic subjects (all 5.2). Performance was also rated favourably on one environmental criterion: maximizing the satisfaction of parents (5.2).

Principals viewed performance on some other criteria less favourably. The lowest mean rating obtained was for maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community (4.3); 16% of principals responded that their schools were either "slightly" or "moderately ineffective" on this criterion, and a further 38% saw the existing state as being no more than "slightly effective." Also among the lowest rankings were communicating school goals to students, maximizing the development of creativity, and discussing, planning and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively (all 4.7); the latter variable, in particular, attracted responses at all levels of the ineffectiveness-effectiveness scale.

In spite of such a disparity in the individual responses, and although mean ratings of effectiveness varied considerably across the range of criteria, the matter of effectiveness needs to be viewed in perspective. On every criterion, the mean level of school effectiveness was 4.3 or higher on the six-point scale; and, even on the lowest rated dimension, 84% of respondents viewed their schools as effective. Hence, in the perceptions of the 112 principals in this study, the performance of sampled elementary schools in Alberta was seen to be effective in all of the 38 aspects of school life about which responses were solicited.

Best Predictors of Overall Effectiveness of Schools

To probe the central dimensions of current effectiveness in schools, as required by Research Question 10, these data were also analyzed to disclose best predictors of overall effectiveness. Stepwise multiple regression analysis produced the results reported in Table 6.3. The variable which contributed most variance (34.6%) in the dependent variable was performance of the school in maintaining an appropriate school climate; this variable also correlated strongly (.56) with overall effectiveness. The second variable entered, maximizing the satisfaction of parents, added a further 8.9% of the variance, whereas maintaining high expectations of staff (3.7%) and keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology (1.5%) provided smaller contributions. Although its addition to the regression analysis was statistically significant, the latter variable was not so highly correlated with overall effectiveness (.46) as were the three best predictors. Even so, correlation analysis using pairwise deletion also revealed these four variables as the leading correlates of the overall variable: for predictor 1, r = .55; predictor 2, r = .49; predictor 3, r = .52; predictor 4, r = .45).

Even though they were eliminated in the stepwise procedure, three other variables also had noteworthy statistical connections with overall effectiveness:

1. displaying staff commitment to the school (r = .41);

2. maintaining high expectations of students (r = .41); and
3. maximizing the morale of the staff as a group (r = .40).

The particularly low (and negative) correlation of one variable also deserves mention: correlation of preparing students for the junior high school program with overall effectiveness resulted in a coefficient of -.05. This finding suggests that quality of preparation for the succeeding school level may have had little to do with elementary school principals' assessments of the overall effectiveness of their organizations.

Table 6.3

School Effectiveness Criteria as Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness
(n = 95)

Predictor of Overall School Effectiveness	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	31.6	31.6	.56
2. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	40.5	8.9	.55
3. Maintaining high expectations of staff	44.2	3.7	.56
4. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	46.7	1.5	.46

The four best predictors of overall effectiveness also correlated strongly with other criterion variables. Predictor 1 (maintaining an appropriate school climate) exhibited 14 item correlation coefficients exceeding .40; most notable were relationships with maintaining high expectations of staff (.59), maximizing the morale of the staff as a group (.55), maximizing student satisfaction and morale (.54), displaying staff commitment to the school (.52), displaying staff cooperation and cohesion (.52), maximizing the development of important social skills (.51) and maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members (.50). Pervading most of these and the remaining strong correlates of the best predictor were emphases on staff attitudes and behaviour as well as on attitudes of student members of the school.

The second best predictor (maximizing the satisfaction of parents) had correlation coefficients exceeding .40 with only seven other criterion variables. Consistent with the thrust of that criterion, closest links were with obtaining support from the community (.54) and responding to changing community expectations (.50). A third relationship is still more interesting: maximizing the satisfaction of parents had a correlation coefficient of .49 with maintaining an appropriate school climate, which implies a perception among principals that parents of elementary school children may have a role in this regard.

In addition to being one of the two most highly correlated variables with overall effectiveness of schools, the third predictor (maintaining high expectations of staff) displayed clear relationships with 13 criterion variables; as noted above, one was a strong link with the other most highly correlated variable and best predictor, maintaining an appropriate school climate (.59). Other correlations that should be mentioned were as follows: displaying staff commitment to the school (.69), maximizing the job satisfaction of staff (.64), maximizing staff morale (.63), showing a high level of staff motivation (.55), displaying staff cooperation and cohesion (.49), acknowledging the achievements of staff and students (.46) and maximizing the satisfaction of parents (.45). With the exception of the last-named variable, these and almost all other item correlations with coefficients in excess of .40 were, not surprisingly, focussed on staff behaviours and attitudes.

Relationships with the fourth predictor (keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology), which was itself less strongly associated with overall effectiveness, were fewer in number (eight variables) and of a lower order. Leading correlations were with making efficient use of resources (.50) and demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter (.50). One important feature of this variable was its low mean ranking of effectiveness; this may help to account for the less-than-optimal level of overall effectiveness and may indicate a vital but sometimes neglected area of the school's work.

Two further variables correlated strongly with overall effectiveness as well as with other criterion variables. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group, which had a correlation coefficient of .40 with the overall variable, displayed strong associations with ten other criterion variables; of greatest consequence were relationships with maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members (.71), displaying staff commitment to the school (.65) and maintaining high expectations of staff (.63). One of these variables, displaying staff commitment to the school, itself correlated with overall effectiveness to the extent of .41 and with 16 other variables in excess of .40; outstanding relationships (further to the staff morale item) were with maintaining high expectations of staff (.69), showing a high level of staff motivation (.65) and maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members (.64), and most other dimensions also focussed on staff behaviours. Two exceptions were relationships of this staff commitment variable with obtaining support from the community (.43) as well as with maximizing the satisfaction of parents (.45). These two environmental aspects seem to be viewed by principals as indicators of a strong commitment to elementary education in the school.

Relationships Between Overall Effectiveness of Schools and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics

To address Research Question 11, the data on overall effectiveness of schools were compared according to basic attributes of schools and principals. Such variations in effectiveness levels were tested for statistical significance and, although only one difference of this order was revealed, many patterns emerged.

School setting. Table 6.4 details the differences in perceptions of overall effectiveness as they relate to city, town and rural locations. Principals in city schools were most positive about the effectiveness of their schools (mean 5.19) although their views were also the least consistent (S.D. 0.54). Principals in towns, on the other hand, rated school effectiveness slightly lower than did either of the other groups (mean 5.09).

Table 6.4

Means of Overall School Effectiveness Classified by Selected Organizational Characteristics
(n = 110)

Organizational Characteristic	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
School Setting				
1. City	73	5.19	0.54	-
2. Town	23	5.09	0.42	
3. Rural	14	5.14	0.53	
Type of School System				
1. Public District	55	5.24	0.58	-
2. Separate District	23	5.04	0.47	
3. County	19	5.11	0.46	
4. Division	13	5.15	0.38	

Consistent with these findings was the perception of one principal who remarked in an interview that "city schools have access to a lot of resources, both human and supply-type things, that allow us to have a great deal of flexibility." On the other hand, another principal contended that schools in city locations lack the capacity for establishing relationships with the community and for obtaining feedback from parents. Another added that,

> In a small town, a small community . . . the school is a hub, and people are aware of what's going on there, and I like to think that parents in the community here [a small community] are more supportive of the school than they are in the city, just because of that cohesiveness in the community.

School system. Public district schools were associated with the highest and most divergent levels of effectiveness (mean 5.24; S.D. 0.58). Responses were also particularly favourable within school divisions (mean 5.15) and principals in those schools were more in agreement about their perceptions (S.D. 0.38) than were all other groups of respondents. Separate school districts were judged to be the least effective of the four types of school system (mean 5.04), but the greatest difference between means was 0.20.

School size. According to the findings reported in Table 6.5, effectiveness was seen to be greatest in schools with moderately large enrolments (mean 5.26). Very small schools were also associated with high effectiveness ratings (5.20), although opinions also varied markedly in schools within that size range (S.D. 0.56). Greatest variability of perceptions was observed in schools with 100-199 pupils (S.D. 0.64); in general, effectiveness ratings tended to be slightly lower in those schools (mean 5.11). Schools with extremely high student populations were lowest on the overall effectiveness scale (mean 5.08)--and most consistently so (S.D. 0.28). Comparisons based on two further measures of organizational size are also informative. Somewhat in contrast to the previous findings, schools with many teachers (more than 20) recorded higher mean levels of effectiveness (5.17) than did the schools with the most common number, 10-19 teachers (mean 5.09). Despite some lack of agreement about the matter (S.D. 0.53), overall effectiveness was rated highest in schools with fewer than ten teachers (mean 5.28). To summarize the remaining figures in the table, the more vice-principals a school had, the higher was the mean level of overall effectiveness: schools with 2-3 vice-principals recorded slightly higher levels of effectiveness than schools with only one vice-principal. Though greatest in variability of perception (S.D. 0.61), lowest of the three groups were the schools without vice-principals (mean 5.15).

These findings were not strictly consistent with open-ended responses about factors that inhibit school effectiveness. According to one respondent, "too small a student population" may be a serious inhibitor of effective performance. Another principal was more specific, alleging that, with "very small staffs--[there is] no opportunity for grade-level discussions." In the case of interviewees, however, opinion about small schools and effectiveness was divided. One principal remarked about small school size permitting greater organizational effectiveness: "The smaller the school, generally the better parents feel about coming in. They're not as intimidated by the school and,

Table 6.5

Means of Overall School Effectiveness Classified by Selected School Size Characteristics

Characteristic of School Size	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
Number of Students (n = 107)				
1. Fewer than 100	15	5.20	0.56	–
2. 100 - 199	27	5.11	0.64	
3. 200 - 299	25	5.16	0.55	
4. 300 - 399	27	5.26	0.45	
5. 400 - or more	13	5.08	0.28	
Number of Full-Time Equivalent Teachers (n = 107)				
1. Fewer than 10	29	5.28	0.53	–
2. 10 - 19	55	5.09	0.55	
3. 20 or more	23	5.17	0.39	
Number of Vice-Principals (n = 105)				
1. 0	41	5.15	0.61	–
2. 1	55	5.20	0.45	
3. 2 - 3	9	5.22	0.44	

therefore, it becomes a cooperative effort with the parents." As a personal observation, she added, "Because we're a small school, we have parents doing a large number of jobs in the school, so they really have ownership of the school." On the other hand, a principal of a large school expressed concern about effectiveness in "very, very small schools," for they have to cope with split grades and "less equipment because you have less money . . . per student." Two others alluded to the restricted opportunity for small schools to provide adequate programs with a limited range of instructional expertise; a colleague in a small school concurred, and also noted the problem of teachers "not having peers to discuss things with."

Unfavourable comments on questionnaires and in interviews about the effectiveness of large schools were more consistent with the quantitative results; thereby, they help to explain the lower effectiveness ratings in the very large schools. One respondent wrote that "too large and complex schools" confront the problem of "too many programs." Another believed that schools that are "too large and bureaucratic . . . tend to teach to the mean." At interview, one observation was made that, in large schools, "the teachers wouldn't know many kids beyond those they teach"; consequently, those schools would be impersonal for students and would find it difficult to "pinpoint problems." Another preferred to note a tendency for teachers in large schools to be "isolated"; and he pointed out that participatory decision making becomes cumbersome where "45 people" have to be consulted.

Personal characteristics of principals. As the data in Table 6.6 indicate, perceptions of school effectiveness differed according to the sex of the principals. Ratings of overall effectiveness by female principals were much higher (mean 5.45) than ratings by male principals (mean 5.09). Moreover, *t*-test analysis revealed a difference that was statistically significant, even at the .01 level.

Table 6.6

Means of Overall School Effectiveness Classified by Personal Characteristics of Principals (n = 110)

Personal Characteristic	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
Sex[1]				
1. Female	22	5.45	0.60	1,2**
2. Male	88	5.09	0.47	
Age				
1. Younger than 40	29	5.17	0.54	-
2. 40 - 49	52	5.13	0.49	
3. 50 or older	29	5.21	0.56	

[1] Statistical significance analyzed by *t*-test. ** denotes statistical significance at the .01 level.

Age of the principal also appeared to have some bearing on school effectiveness.

Principals aged 50 or older tended to be associated with the highest ratings of school effectiveness (mean 5.21), although they also displayed a greater spread of opinion than did the younger school administrators. While the age analysis did not produce significant differences in perceptions of effectiveness, responses from principals in the 40-49 age bracket were slightly less favourable (5.13) than those from their younger (5.17) and older counterparts.

Career aspirations of principals. Analysis of school effectiveness according to the long-term career aspirations of principals generated findings that were contrary to those in connection with principals' job satisfaction. Incumbents who aspired to other jobs, though relatively less satisfied with their current work, tended to rate the effectiveness of their schools higher (mean 5.24) than did the principals whose ambitions focussed on principalship (mean 5.10). Even so, this difference was not so marked as to be statistically significant. Table 6.7 summarizes the findings about career aspirations and school effectiveness levels.

Table 6.7

Means of Overall School Effectiveness Classified by Long-Term Career Aspirations of Principals
(n = 98)

Career Aspiration	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.[1]
1. Principalship	61	5.10	0.54	–
2. Other Aspirations	37	5.24	0.50	

[1] Statistical significance analyzed by *t*-test.

Experience as principals. As the data in Table 6.8 show, school effectiveness responses were highest in schools where principals had extensive--though not excessive--experience in the current position. Those with 7-9 years of leadership background on location viewed effectiveness most positively (mean 5.30), and respondents with 4-6 years of experience were also well disposed in this regard (5.26).

Table 6.8

Means of Overall School Effectiveness Classified by Years of Experience of Principals
(n = 108)

Years of Experience of Principals	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
In Present Position				
1. 1	11	5.09	0.83	-
2. 2	20	5.25	0.44	
3. 3	12	5.08	0.51	
4. 4 - 6	23	5.26	0.45	
5. 7 - 9	10	5.30	0.67	
6. 10 - 12	19	5.11	0.46	
7. 13 or more	13	5.00	0.41	
In Prior Principalship				
1. 0	37	5.27	0.61	-
2. 1 - 4	22	5.18	0.50	
3. 5 - 8	25	5.04	0.54	
4. 9 or more	24	5.13	0.34	
Total Years in Principalship				
1. 1	6	5.17	1.17	-
2. 2	8	5.38	0.52	
3. 3 - 5	11	5.00	0.45	
4. 6 - 10	27	5.26	0.45	
5. 11 - 15	25	5.16	0.47	
6. 16 - 20	17	5.12	0.49	
7. 21 or more	14	5.07	0.47	

Beyond this period of service in the present school, however, experience was associated with somewhat lower and generally declining levels of school effectiveness. One anomaly among the more junior principals' responses was the relatively high effectiveness ratings assigned by principals in their second year of leadership in the current school. Moreover, by coupling this outcome with a finding that school effectiveness was highest where principals lacked previous experience of this kind in other school settings (mean 5.27), effectiveness and total experience can be seen in perspective: school effectiveness was rated highest by principals who were only in their second year as school leaders (5.38). At the same time, principals with 6-10 years of total experience in the leadership position also tended to rate the effectiveness of their schools comparatively highly (5.26).

One other finding is also worthy of comment: greatest diversity was evident among respondents in their first year of principalship (S.D. 0.83) and those lacking prior appointments of this kind (S.D. 0.61). For this reason, total leadership experience of only one year was associated with substantially greater variability of opinion (S.D. 1.17) than that expressed by any other group.

Post-secondary education of principals. Table 6.9 displays the results of one final comparison of responses from different classes of principals. Respondents who reported having five years of post-secondary education were associated with more positive perceptions of school effectiveness (mean 5.35) than were those with more or fewer years. Those with no more than four years of professional training tended to rate their schools lowest on effectiveness (5.06).

Table 6.9

Means of Overall School Effectiveness Classified by Years of Post-Secondary Education of Principals (n = 108)

Years of Post-Secondary Education	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
1. 4 or fewer	32	5.06	0.50	–
2. 5	26	5.35	0.49	
3. 6 or more	50	5.14	0.53	

Importance of Criteria for Judging the Overall Effectiveness of Schools

Research Question 12 called for identification of the most important criteria for judging the overall effectiveness of an elementary school. Outstanding among the results reported in Table 6.10 is the generally high rating of all 39 aspects of the school's activities; principals in this study regarded school effectiveness as a composite of good performance in many domains. The highest mean ratings (3.9 on the four-point scale) were assigned to maintaining an appropriate school climate, maintaining high expectations of students, maximizing achievement in reading and writing, displaying leadership by the principal, maximizing student satisfaction and morale, maximizing the morale of the staff as a group, using appropriate teaching methods, and acknowledging the achievements of staff and students. These responses ranged from attitudes and literacy among students, to the principal's leadership, and then to staff attitudes and practices. Four additional criteria relating to staff and students also rated particularly highly in importance (at least 3.8) for assessing the overall effectiveness of schools: maximizing achievement in mathematics, maintaining high expectations of staff, displaying staff cooperation and cohesion, and maximizing the development of important social skills. Furthermore, an overwhelming majority of respondents commended each of the foregoing criteria as "extremely important" elements to include in judgements of school effectiveness.

Lowest mean importance ratings were assigned to the following criteria: maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community (3.0), maintaining low turnover of staff (3.2), frequently evaluating students according to defined standards (3.2), discussing, planning and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively (3.3), providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities (3.3) and preparing students for the junior high school program (3.4). Most disagreement about importance centred on the first three and the last of these criteria; each attracted ratings across the scale from "not important" to "extremely important" and the percentages of respondents dismissing them as being of little importance for school effectiveness were 15%, 18%, 16% and 8%. Despite this dissension and the relatively low rankings of these variables among the school effectiveness criteria examined, a reminder about absolute ratings is also in order: mean ratings of 3.0 and above on a four-point scale represent substantial support--support that prevented any items from being discarded as unimportant for assessing organizational effectiveness in elementary schools.

As well as rating effectiveness on the criteria specified in the research instrument, a small number of respondents (17) advanced additional criteria that they regarded as important for judging school effectiveness at the elementary educational level. "Assistance and support from the jurisdiction" were recorded most frequently as influencing a school's effectiveness: four respondents referred to "support from the associate superintendent" and expert assistance from "student services" and "consultants"--factors that may be beyond the immediate control of the school itself. The quality of the school's support staff was also mentioned: two respondents noted the positive impact of "cooperative . . . support staff (secretary) in dealing with staff, administration, and the public." Two desirable attitudes of staff were included as criteria of effectiveness: an "attitude that it's safe to make mistakes if we're trying"; and the extent to which a school exhibits "collegiality," or a "team approach," to its work. "Accessibility of the building to the public" and involvement of parents in the school were signs of effectiveness for two other respondents, and two respondents thought that the quality and appearance of the physical plant should be taken into account.

One principal's questionnaire responses included criticism of one item in the instrument itself--enforcing behavioural rules among students. He contended that it "doesn't fit our philosophy." Another noted that other prespecified criteria--job satisfaction and morale of staff--are also very much "an up and downer," being "affected by isolated incidents or administrative decisions." These comments served as a useful reminder of the danger of overlooking the individual situation in school effectiveness appraisal.

Interviews with ten principals confirmed the importance of many criteria recorded in the questionnaire. A most significant finding, however, relates to the general nature of the interviewees' perceptions. Although each interview included an invitation to state "the prime indicator" of school effectiveness, most principals responded with a number of aspects, many of which were broad enough to encompass multiple criteria. Indeed, one principal's initial comment was, "Oh dear, there are so many"; another remarked, "Effectiveness is a whole bunch of things." A third respondent advocated reliance on "learning in the classroom," but qualified this by noting that "that is tied in with so many other variables. . . . I wouldn't want to isolate it." Another principal further asserted that "Parent satisfaction and involvement, teacher satisfaction and commitment and student satisfaction and commitment would be the three things you'd have to use as a gauge. I don't think you could use one." Likewise, the inclination of most principals was to incorporate in their comments the behaviour and/or attitudes of students, teachers, parents and, in some instances, also the community.

In specific terms, a variety of dimensions were advanced as being of prime importance for assessing school effectiveness. Particular attention was accorded to student matters. One principal alluded to the keenness and satisfaction of pupils: "their attitudes and their verve for involvement in the educational setting--that you can see them excited about learning and secure and happy in their surroundings." Another principal referred to "student growth," which he took to include academic achievement as well as "growth of self esteem."

Other respondents focussed on teachers' attitudes and practices as leading indicators of effectiveness. One mentioned "the quality of staff"; another noted effective teachers' propensity for "cooperative planning," without which "kids learn in isolation, [and] there isn't any kind of consistency" in instruction. In considering effectiveness criteria, other principals were keen to speak about both teachers and students. According to one principal, effectiveness can best be identified where "Everyone that is a part of the school [is] achieving their goals. . . . Are people achieving what they are here to do?--be it to teach the children, be it to learn." Two others concentrated, not on teachers' and students' goal achievement, but on their collective "morale and spirit in the school"; as one commented, "if one runs an effective school, you see that--see kids inspired and motivated and doing all kinds of interesting things--and teachers get wrapped up in that too."

Two principals also spoke about criteria based on parental and community attitudes and involvement. One argued that effectiveness is exhibited in "the perception of the school in the eyes of the community," and he added that the "parent volunteers" show that parents are supportive. The other stated that "The fundamental gauge of effectiveness . . . is the perception amongst the parents of how successful the school is. . . . if the parents' perception of the school is bad . . . you're 99% sure that there are real problems." When asked how he would ascertain parental attitudes about effectiveness, this respondent commended a practice, used by his own school board, of distributing questionnaires to parents.

To probe some individual criteria further, the ten interviewees were asked for additional comments about selected criteria that emerged from statistical analysis as the most important and the least important. Few respondents wished to comment on many highly rated criteria other than to confirm their high priority. One principal, however, wished to clarify the notion of "high expectations," citing a need to judge effectiveness according to individualized expectations:

> You expect the very best a child can do and they will try their darnedest to meet your expectations. . . . But, even if a child does not achieve the highest--the best--if they have done their best, they will be rewarded the same as anybody else. . . . they don't measure themselves against everybody else. It's *their* best rather than an outside standard.

The most highly rated criterion in the questionnaire was effectiveness of the school in maintaining an appropriate school climate; and a major purpose of the interviews was to ascertain the kind of climate that is "appropriate" for effective operation of an elementary school. For this reason, interviewees were asked to comment specifically about this matter. The following responses reflect an overwhelming consensus among principals that an appropriate school climate at the elementary level is one that is characterized by pervasive attitudes of care, acceptance and cooperation among teachers and children:

> There should be a caring attitude between the staff and the children, and between the children themselves--that the staff care personally about the children and that the children care about each other.
>
> It's a climate, or a school culture, that says to the kids they're safe there, they're happy there, we'll look after them there, you can fail there, you can take risks there, we love you there, and, if you commit some terrible deed, we get it over with and get back on track immediately.
>
> . . . a climate that says ". . . . you are in an environment that is protected. We will protect your right to a quality education in an academic sense. We will protect your right to grow in an environment of trust and mutual support--a friendly atmosphere." Our motto is consideration for others.
>
> . . . a Christian environment for children where we respect, we accept, we appreciate, we do the very best we can with our gifts. . . . [and there is] a sense of cooperation within the whole school . . . the students with each other, the staff with each other, the parents--everyone cooperating. . . . So the whole element of cooperation, I think, is key to the climate in the school.
>
> . . . children and parents feel comfortable in terms of coming to the school--that there isn't a barrier there.
>
> . . . you [the staff] go that extra mile . . . and it spreads.
>
> A proper climate is a non-threatening, relaxed type of an atmosphere where there's good control, there's good discipline . . . but where there's caring.
>
> An atmosphere in which children feel comfortable and secure.

One principal added that an attitude of mutual concern among members of the school is most readily achieved in rural schools and K-6 schools: "farm children . . . don't get to see each other as much as town children do. . . . so they tend to enjoy each other much more while they are together"; and, in schools with the full range of grades, children are less frequently "king of the castle" and therefore tend to associate more with children in other grades. Another principal remarked that he feels largely responsible for developing such a climate within the school.

Two principals expressed contrasting views about an appropriate school climate. To one, satisfaction of teachers and involvement of parents promote and signify the kind of atmosphere where children can "enjoy school." According to the other principal, achievement of school goals and participatory decision making are elements of a positive climate at school--one that "rubs off on the kids" because teachers convey enthusiasm, tolerance and positive reinforcement in their classrooms.

Owing to an emphasis in some school effectiveness literature on an "orderly" school climate, the interviewees were also asked to comment in that regard. The notion of orderliness received only qualified support; one respondent captured most clearly the common perception about cooperation and mutual respect:

> It depends how you define "orderly." I see our kids here as being very orderly even though they laugh a lot. To be orderly means to me to be polite and thoughtful of others; and, if you laugh in the hallway, then I'm glad of that. "Orderly" can tend to mean a military orderly; but, to me, orderly means that we're careful of each other and that no-one deliberately hurts someone else and that, if I want your attention, I have a signal that will get that attention easily and happily. And we have interactive learning--noisy but orderly--[but] not regimentation.

Other principals likewise emphasized "cooperation," "consideration for others," "*self*-discipline" rather than "external order," and "not heavy discipline . . . just 'This is how we expect you to behave'." One respondent further highlighted the danger of orderliness that takes the form of rigid discipline:

> You can be so orderly that children aren't allowed to enjoy learning, and I guess the extreme of that would be, "Don't bounce that ball too loudly!" . . . if a child needs to present a report, and the only free place is the library, should we all turn and in unison go, "Sssshh!?" If the child is growing at that moment with a report in the library, that orderliness would squelch the child's opportunity for growth.

The three poorly ranked criteria examined during interviews--maximizing non-parent satisfaction, maintaining low turnover of staff, and frequently evaluating students according to defined standards--each attracted comment. Although there was a general consensus about the lesser importance of these three aspects, some dissenting opinion, qualification and clarification were expressed.

One principal--an administrator in a community school--valued non-parent satisfaction highly; he explained that "we probably attend to that more than others by . . . our government mandate." Two other principals argued that lack of time prevents schools from attending adequately to this constituency: "If there were more time, I suppose we would look at the non-parent community; but, with time being of the essence, there just isn't time to worry about what people are thinking of us." One considered that this matter is of more importance to school board members than to personnel in schools:

> Satisfaction of the non-parent community is probably more important to the school board members that it is to the schools. It's obviously important to a political figure. Schools tend to think very much in terms of satisfaction of parents and don't tend to look beyond that. That may be a mistake, but I can certainly understand why schools do it. You spend the majority of your time on your clients. If there's time after that for some local PR, then okay.

Two principals contended that evaluation of students "isn't that important to effectiveness." Three others, however, strongly defended the importance of evaluation; as one explained, "It had better be important, because, if you don't evaluate, then you don't know anything about achievement." Another principal also commended evaluation in principle but argued that definition of standards should be unnecessary: "If you've got the morale and the achievement and the appropriate teaching methods of staff, then . . . you know that the staff are going to have high standards." Another principal disagreed: "You can't evaluate unless you've got clearly defined standards." Some debate centred on the matter of standardized provincial testing. While some principals considered that "you have to rely on a type of standardized testing," others were adamant that the provincial tests fail to measure performance comprehensively. One of the critics was disturbed by central administrators' preoccupation with such demonstrable but inadequate indicators of effectiveness. A fellow principal who concurred further questioned the assumptions that may have prompted the questionnaire respondents to give this criterion a relatively low mean rating:

> If anyone would mark that [criterion] down . . . as sort of a low priority . . . then I couldn't agree with it. It must mean [to those who did so] the standardized tests across the province, and I would agree on that being a low priority--although they are important. Daily informal evaluation is very important.

The interviewees were in agreement that low staff turnover is not a high priority criterion. Indeed, some principals disputed the use of such a guide to effectiveness.

One person described lucidly how this criterion may give a misleading impression:

> Low turnover of staff is such an artificial indicator. You could have a tremendously low turnover of staff because everybody loves to be there because they can do their own thing and can help set the timetable that gives them everything they want but doesn't stretch them as a teacher; or somebody is a dictator and no child dares speak out, and they just love that controlled environment, but there's no real learning going on and no growth whatsoever. So the low turnover of staff is a very poor indicator.

Another principal shared this view, and added, "I *like* to lose the teachers who are not on my team--people who don't subscribe to the same ideas as the rest of my staff."

Other principals stressed the benefits of frequent turnover of staff members. One remarked that he "would encourage teachers to move reasonably regularly, just for their own growth." Another observed, "In general, you don't want a high turnover every year. . . . [but] Every once in a while, you need fresh ideas in the school, and fresh direction." The two female principals explored this criterion still further. In the words of one, "That's part of the school effectiveness literature I always have a bit of trouble with. . . . I think that it probably came with the thought that, some places, everybody wants out all the time and then you don't have any continuity." The other saw a need to investigate the cause of a high turnover of staff: "Staff turnover, I don't think, really affects the school at all--providing it isn't due to any reason. But, if it's due to the fact that teachers are unhappy . . . it's a sign." She added that a new policy in her school jurisdiction, whereby the school principal interviews prospective teachers, has overcome the disruptive effect of frequent changes of staff:

> You now get to interview people, so you can lay out the philosophy of the school, the expectations, and then you can talk about it. . . . Therefore, teachers come in and they know what to expect. So, even if you do have staff change, the general tone of the school stays the same.

Criterion Effectiveness and Importance

Further quantitative analysis was undertaken to gain some understanding of the performance of schools in the organizational domains that principals across Alberta perceived to be of most consequence for overall effectiveness in schools. Initially, Spearman correlation analysis revealed a high degree of association in the effectiveness and importance rankings (r = .62; p < .01). This is tempered, however, by the results of Kendall rank-ordered correlation analysis (r = .46; p < .01), a procedure which is more meaningful in instances, such as the present, where the data include a substantial number of tied ranks.

Beyond these general comparisons of means, matching of the school effectiveness items that were rated among the ten highest on current effectiveness against those that emerged as the leading criteria for judging school effectiveness made it possible to check whether schools perform best in--and, by implication, perhaps also focus most effort upon--specific aspects of school life that are most crucial for high achievement. Table 6.11 summarizes this comparison.

Two cautionary notes need to be made about this comparison. First, the mean rating of "overall effectiveness of principals as leaders," though these responses were derived in a separate section of the questionnaires, was added to the school effectiveness variables in order to compare performance in that domain with its ranking of importance for school effectiveness; to do otherwise would have been to neglect what emerged as a central measure of the overall effectiveness of schools. Second, the ten-item limitation that was imposed for purposes of convenience and brevity somewhat arbitarily eliminated from consideration many highly rated school effectiveness criteria.

Recognizing these limitations, many important consistencies and discrepancies were revealed. The school climate variable, which was earlier established as the best predictor of overall effectiveness, emerged not only as the most effective dimension of those examined but also as the most important criterion upon which an appraisal of overall effectiveness should be based. Four other variables also exhibited broadly consistent effectiveness and importance rankings of means: acknowledging the achievements of staff and students, displaying staff cooperation and cohesion, maximizing achievement in reading and writing, and maintaining high expectations of staff. On the other hand, the schools in this study were also judged to be performing in a relatively effective manner in areas of lesser importance. While the criteria associated with parental and community support and satisfaction (items numbered 2, 3 and 11 in the table) had high importance ratings--if not also high rankings--two other dimensions may constitute areas which have been given higher priority than they deserve: maintaining low turnover of staff (ranked 7th in effectiveness but 38th in importance) and emphasizing academic subjects (equal 10th in effectiveness and 30th in importance).

One of the greatest strengths of the dual effectiveness-importance analysis is apparent in its disclosure of highly important but relatively less effective domains. Table 6.11 records six criteria which may constitute areas of some pervasive deficiency in Alberta's elementary schools. These include the matters of maintaining high expectations of students, displaying leadership by the principal, maximizing student satisfaction and morale, maximizing the morale of the staff as a group, using appropriate teaching methods, and maximizing achievement in mathematics. At the same time, the high absolute mean rating of effectiveness accorded to each of these items is also important to note; this reminder places these apparent "problem" areas in proper perspective and thereby may afford practitioners some consolation.

In order to pursue the matter of performance on important criteria beyond mean ratings of effectiveness, the best predictors and best individual correlates of current levels of overall effectiveness were examined for centrality in the importance rankings. Two predictors tended to be judged by respondents as also being of high importance for overall effectiveness: maintaining an appropriate school climate (the most important criterion) and maintaining high expectations of staff (equal tenth in importance). However, the remaining two predictors of extant school effectiveness levels were of much less relative importance for many principals; maximizing the satisfaction of parents was 18th and keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology was 32nd. At the same time, the latter variable accounted for little additional variance in overall effectiveness and was less strongly correlated with the overall variable than were the other three predictors. The three other correlates reported earlier in this chapter diverged when checked for conformity with importance rankings: maintaining high expectations of students was second in order of importance, and maximizing the morale of the staff as a group was sixth, but displaying staff commitment to the school ranked only 22nd in importance.

A check on this general finding was obtained through regression of importance ratings with the responses about the current overall effectiveness of schools. Based on individual ratings of importance, three variables contributed significantly to the variance in current levels of overall effectiveness. Maintaining communication with the community, the first of the importance variables, predicted 11.4% of the variance, acknowledging the achievements of staff and students contributed a further 5.7%, and maximizing student satisfaction and morale added another 2.7%. Even so, the total contribution of these three variables was only 20.9% and, in comparison with mean importance ratings, they represented only the 14th, 8th and 5th most important criteria for judging school effectiveness. Furthermore, based on the stepwise regression of importance ratings against overall effectiveness, item correlation coefficients ranged from -.06 to .34. These findings indicated no more than isolated association of highly important criteria with principals' judgements about the performance of their schools. In other words, in spite of some general consistency revealed by rank-order correlation analysis of means, respondents did not seem to judge current school effectiveness according to many of the criteria that they perceived to be most central for this purpose.

Constraints on School Effectiveness

The final aspect of the school effectiveness investigation related to Research Question 13. It concerned the personal and organizational factors that principals saw as inhibiting the effectiveness of elementary schools. To this end, provision was made for open-ended responses in the questionnaire as well as for comments by participants in the follow-up interviews. Many questionnaire respondents--many more than those who submitted remarks on any other item--recorded constraints that they considered to be troublesome at the elementary school level; interviewees were also enthusiastic in making assertions in this regard. Nine main classifications of constraints were proposed; these included the problems of staff time and workload, financial and other resources, students, parental and community influences, school system and Department of Education administrators, dispositions of teachers, attributes of principals, characteristics of the school organizations and, more generally, the misguided educational focus of administrators and educators. Each deserves brief attention.

Staff workload and time. Fifteen questionnaire respondents and two interviewees remarked about the related impediments of insufficient time and excessive profession obligation. "Work overload" seemed to be the source of much of this concern. Some respondents referred generally to "staff overload," to responsibilities that are "too heavy," and to "staff being overtasked [sic]/too many expectations added every year." Others were more specific about the causes of those expanding responsibilities: "central administration demands on time"; "curriculum demands/time allocations"; "too many requests from too many special interest groups to involve the school in solving society's problems"; and "social service functions that must be performed that distract from the teaching function, eg, counselling students, parents/families." The perceived effects of those commitments included "lack of adequate preparation time," "lack of time to satisfy all the demands," "lack of communication due to overload" and "stress" among teachers.

Inadequacy of resources. Open-ended questionnaire responses related most frequently (35 responses) to the detrimental effects of "budget restraints" and insufficient educational and support services on the effectiveness of Alberta's elementary schools; half of the ten interviewees also shared this concern. Financial problems were at the forefront; recent cutbacks in educational funding were said to have resulted in general "understaffing," shortages of "guidance [personnel], resource room staff, inadequate funding for the library, new texts," a "lack of funds for small schools to keep current," a "lack of space for all programs--art, music, computers," a "lack of support for disturbed children," a "lack of funds to give time for teachers to meet and plan during working hours," a "lack of budget to implement new programs and ideas," "no staff or budget to cope with products of deteriorating family situations" and "poor physical facilities and maintenance." The most common concern with financial restriction, however, was its undesirable impact on the "size of classes"; apparently, schools were handicapped by "high pupil/teacher ratios." Indeed, one interviewee added a warning for the future:

> Next year, with cutbacks, I can see a real drop in the effectiveness of schools. . . . [because of] the staffing of schools, in terms of numbers--class sizes. . . . And that's going to cut down on a lot of the enrichment, a lot of the creativity that's going on now with the teacher in the classroom. . . . Funding definitely could inhibit effectiveness.

In addition to financial effects, effectiveness of schools was said to be constrained by a dearth of specialists and support services. Questionnaire respondents wrote variously about a "lack of specialized personnel in areas of music and remediation," a "lack of expertise to deal with L.D. children" and a "lack of support services to deal with students/parents who need extra support." One of two principals who commented in similar vein during interviews explained the problem:

> One of the concerns that's come up with us is really good counselling services for students that are having problems. . . . children coming from situations where they cannot fit into the school, and they cause disruptions or upset for the staff and for other students, and yet we don't have those specialized services to really counsel them. . . . It tends to be neglected: the province leaves it up to the school board; the school board provides it in the larger schools, or they provide it in the junior high and the senior high, but the elementaries tend to be neglected.

One information need was also identified in a questionnaire response: "Lack of research in areas of societal and environmental change."

Students. Two principals stated in questionnaire responses that elementary school children hamper efforts in their schools to perform effectively. Neither was specific about the effects of the constraint; one referred to a "lack of motivation by students" and the other alluded to "student behaviors which prohibit effective learning."

Parents and the community. A great many more of the respondents blamed parents and social forces for low educational attainment by students. Twenty-nine questionnaire responses focussed on parental and community constraints and interference in effective school operation--22 involved criticism of parents for contributing to attitudinal and behavioural problems at school. One interviewee also complained about the adverse impact of "unstable backgrounds," which is "making it difficult to achieve the same results as we used to . . . 20 years ago." The following written responses, which span issues of physical circumstance, parental attitude, cultural background and social conflict, reflect the many dimensions of this problem:

> Student behavior problems, stemming from single parent families and parents who don't support the school and its actions.
>
> Problems within families, societies are becoming far too complex for staff to cope with.
>
> Having to cope with societal dislocations of one-parent families and unemployment.
>
> Student transiency (transient community).
>
> Poor family living conditions.
>
> Poor nutrition and lack of prop[illegible]st and relaxation for students.
>
> Lack of care of children by parents.
>
> Community location of the school (socio-economic status, attitudes).
>
> Lack of commitment by some parents to their child's education--due to (a) inability--poor parental skills (b) no time because of job pressures.
>
> Lack of parental support.
>
> Lack of participation by parents.
>
> Lack of ambition among many parents to break free from current low standards of living.
>
> Cultural backgrounds and attitudes toward children (Natives).

Conflict of languages used at school and home.

Lack of student/staff/parent communication.

Parental inability to understand the need for changes in approach.

The other seven responses pertained to the issue of expectations. Some comments related to the unreasonable and ever-growing demands of constituencies which are not directly involved in the educational organization: "unrealistic expectations of parents and community"; the "continual growth of curricular expectations"; "too many demands made on the school"; and, more specifically, "inappropriate expectation of back to basics (there are better ways)." Two of the respondents noted the competing expectations of different constituencies in that external environment; their concerns were about "the number of communities one needs to respond to" and "varying expectations of what the goals of education should be."

School system and central administrators. Eleven of the provincial sample of principals also viewed administrative procedures and demands at the system and Department of Education levels as inhibiting influences on school effectiveness. Respondents criticized central office personnel for an "emphasis on school and system standardization," imposition of "administrative 'red tape'" on teachers, failure to acknowledge "staff effort, time and commitment," and a "continual emphasis on improvement [which] is burdensome." They also felt that "poor communication and responses from central office personnel" are detrimental to effectiveness at the school level, as are frequent, "arbitrary and inappropriate central office assignments of teachers [which] disregard the school's curriculum needs and school philosophy and overlook the time taken to build an effective, cohesive school and staff." One of the interviewees was also concerned about "the inaccessibility of the superintendent and central office and the lack of direction and empathy by the board. I think that stifles ingenuity and creativeness . . . teachers eventually see that and think 'What's the point?' It's a common problem." School systems and the Department of Education were held jointly responsible for "restricting [sic] rules and regulations (Government and Board)," as well as for their "inappropriate demands of accountability."

In the perception of one principal who was interviewed, provincial administrators were also to blame for frequent and unfruitful revisions of curricular and methodological approaches. This respondent outlined the problem:

> The thing [constraint] is the so-called innovations in education or in teaching that have transpired. . . . We've gone full circle--from the basics to all these other things, to multi-disciplinary approaches, to multi-textual approaches, to a higher number of options, and now we're back to square one. We've found that kids are graduating and they can't read or write properly, so now we're emphasizing basics again. So, *whoever* comes up with these brilliant ideas--certainly that's caused us some frustration. . . . sometimes, you bombard teachers and systems with too much, and you just can't cope.

He linked this constraint on effectiveness with an alleged lack of unity among Alberta's educational institutions--the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Minister of Education and the Alberta School Trustees' Association--which have disadvantaged the quality of education across the province as a result of "pulling in opposite directions" for selfish ends.

Attitudes and work of teachers. The second most commonly advanced collection of constraints (mentioned in questionnaires by 27 principals) concerned the dispositions and characteristics of some teachers and some staffs. Individual teachers may inhibit school effectiveness for a variety of reasons: "limited competence of some staff"; "negative, uninterested teacher attitude"; "staff not totally committed to school philosophy/goals"; "failure to emphasize or recognize the human element [task-oriented attitude]"; "staff lethargy and fear of change--routines that have become ruts!"; "lack of staff communication with parents"; "staff too long in the school"; and "poor quality of teaching (both relationship skills with students, and instructional techniques)"--"poor rapport with students could definitely inhibit the effectiveness of elementary schools." One of the interviewees was especially critical of teachers who lack enthusiasm. He contrasted teachers who "look upon teaching as just a job" with "the teacher who's prepared to give it the time and energy and the enthusiasm and the pizazz that's essential to motivate kids . . . [and] to make any school more effective." Four questionnaire respondents, however, believed "lack of staff commitment to the school" to be the main personal characteristic of concern.

Collectively, staff attitudes may also impede the effectiveness of work within schools. A number of respondents considered that "low staff morale" "has an impact throughout the school." "Poor staff cohesion," or a "staff that does not operate as a team," was also said to be detrimental; one respondent stressed that "staff factions" can present a major barrier to organizational effectiveness. A pervasive "lack of communication re school goals," a "lack of a common goal" and a "lack of a plan for implementing goals" can likewise be damaging to a school's effectiveness.

Principals. Twelve of the questionnaires implicated "poor principals" for hindering schools in their pursuit of effective performance. Most comments merely referred to the "ineffective leadership" by those principals. One respondent, however, further categorized ineffective leaders as either "too old, too tired, [or] too lazy." Four of the principals who were interviewed commented much more decisively and fully on this matter. According to one, "Certainly in any school that I've ever seen, the problem is the administrator. There may have been other things not working in the school, but that person should have changed them." Another was equally adamant, and recorded areas of the school's work that may suffer as a consequence of poor leadership by principals:

> If you don't have an administrator in your school that is going to evaluate the teachers and get rid of the people who are not doing their job; if you're not arranging for program development, for curriculum development . . . well, usually it's because your administrator is not doing it.

Organizational attributes. Eight respondents reasoned that other characteristics of the organization can prejudice the effectiveness of elementary schools in Alberta. Most of these assertions concerned the matter of excessively small or large school size, and those responses have been presented in the course of that section of the presentation of findings. One respondent, however, commented on the nature of the "student population," which "dictates to some extent what programs can be offered." Another mentioned the matter of a "lack of coordination," but no explanation of this problem was offered. An interviewee added that, where a school's "mission" is unclear, "then you've got people doing things that are not directed toward the attainment of the goals."

Inappropriate focus of education. One of the principals who was interviewed charged educators, school boards and provincial administrators alike with educational emphases that ignore current knowledge about child development. He presented a compelling argument that the effectiveness of schools across Alberta is handicapped by

> a lack of focus on the theory of child development across the board [schools in general]. I think, with what we know about development of children through current brain theory and development and the development of the intellect and through the Piaget kinds of stages of development, that a lot of the things that we have traditionally expected children to be able to do are really not appropriate from the mental point of view. The standardized tests at grade 3 level are just one example: they're not developmentally ready to cope with that intellectual function. And I think that, in many cases, the expectations that we have for elementary children are not that different from what we expect of early junior high students, in that you're basically doing some of the same grammatical or mathematical kinds of things, just with younger kinds of children than older ones and, instead of working through the concrete operational stages right through, particularly in the primary grades . . . we're expecting them to be able to do abstract things using pen and paper.

Summary

In a global sense, almost all principals perceived their schools to be at least "moderately effective." Dimensions in which schools were rated as most effective included maintaining an appropriate school climate, maintaining communication with the community, obtaining support from the community, and acknowledging achievements of staff and students. Assessments of school effectiveness were lowest in respect of maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community; even in this domain, however, the pattern was to rate schools as a little more than "slightly effective."

The aspect of greatest effectiveness, maintaining an appropriate school climate, also emerged as the best predictor of the current overall effectiveness of schools. Other variables that also contributed significantly to the variance in overall effectiveness were maximizing the satisfaction of parents, maintaining high expectations of staff, and keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology. Three further variables were highly correlated on an individual basis. In contrast, effectiveness in preparing students for junior high school exhibited remarkably little connection with the overall effectiveness of elementary schools.

Judgements of effectiveness varied somewhat according to certain attributes of schools and principals. Overall effectiveness was rated highest by principals who were in city schools, in public school districts, and in schools with moderately high enrolments and more than one vice-principal. Female principals were significantly more positive about the effectiveness of their schools, and older principals viewed effectiveness more favourably than did younger principals, as did principals who aspired to positions other than principalship. Ratings also tended to be higher among principals with some years of experience in their present schools, and among principals with five years of post-secondary education.

With regard to the usefulness of various criteria for assessing effectiveness in elementary schools, principals perceived all 39 specified criteria as important to some degree; and interview responses added weight to this general finding. Very high importance ratings were obtained for variables such as maintaining an appropriate school climate, maintaining high expectations of students, maximizing achievement in reading and writing, and displaying leadership by the principal. Though still "moderately important," maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community was ranked lowest in order of importance. Open-ended responses contributed further to the list of effectiveness variables, and interviews provided valuable information about the nature of some criteria--most notably what constitutes an "appropriate" school climate--and about *the individual aspect of performance* appraisal.

Dimensions of greatest effectiveness were compared with the criteria that were associated with highest ratings of importance. Although this revealed parallel ratings on some variables, a number of seemingly important aspects of organizational existence were disclosed as areas of possible concern about effectiveness.

Questionnaire comments and responses during follow-up interviews also revealed an array of influences that principals perceived as constraining the effectiveness of elementary schools in Alberta. These influences were associated with work and time commitments of staff, defiencies of resources, student behaviour, parental and community attitudes and involvement, provincial and jurisdiction administration, the philosophical stance of educators and administrators, attributes of principals and teachers, and organizational characteristics of the schools.

CHAPTER 7

EFFECTIVENESS OF PRINCIPALS

The final dimension of the Alberta-wide study concerned principals' perceptions of their effectiveness as elementary school leaders. This focus was reflected in the final section of the questionnaire for principals and in topics addressed in follow-up interviews with selected principals. Outcomes of statistical and content analyses of resultant data are reported in this chapter. They are arranged to provide information about the following research questions:

14. To what extent are principals effective overall?
15. To what extent are principals effective on individual criteria?
16. What criteria best predict the overall effectiveness of principals?
17. What relationships exist between overall effectiveness of principals and selected personal and organizational variables?
18. What are the most important criteria for assessing the effectiveness of principals?
19. What factors constrain the effectiveness of principals?

As in the previous chapters, this presentation includes only the findings in connection with school principals' responses. Comparative data gathered from superintendents, teachers and others were drawn only from the Edmonton region, and they are reported in Chapter 9 as a sub-study of perceptual consistencies and differences.

Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as Leaders

The questionnaire requested principals to rate their effectiveness in their work as school leaders; responses were obtained about overall effectiveness as well as about effectiveness in 29 distinct areas of responsibility. These data were analyzed, first, to ascertain levels of effectiveness of principals; percentage frequencies and means indicated these general patterns. A second level of statistical analysis provided information about organizational and personal differences in the levels of overall effectiveness of principals.

Overall and Criterion Effectiveness of Principals

Principals' perceptions of their overall effectiveness (Research Question 14) were generally positive (Table 7.1). Not unexpectedly, all rated themselves as effective; 78% chose the "moderately effective" level, and this substantial weight of opinion explains the mean rating (5.13) and reasonably low degree of spread around the mean (S.D. 0.45). This response was marginally lower than its equivalent (5.16) in relation to school effectiveness--a finding that was also reflected in slightly lower ratings on individual items.

Table 7.1

Overall Effectiveness Levels of Principals
(n = 109)

Level of Overall Effectiveness of Principals	f	%f
1. Highly Ineffective	–	–
2. Moderately Ineffective	–	–
3. Slightly Ineffective	–	–
4. Slightly Effective	5	4.6
5. Moderately Effective	85	78.0
6. Highly Effective	19	17.4

Mean = 5.13; SD = 0.45

With regard to effectiveness on individual criteria (Research Question 15), principals' responses exhibited much greater variety than those on the overall variable (Table 7.2). Item means nevertheless favoured the upper (effective) end of the six-point scale, ranging from a high of 5.4 to a low of 4.3. As this range indicates, principals in elementary schools tended to perceive themselves as being at least "slightly effective" in all domains examined. The highest means obtained were for exercising exemplary behaviour at school (5.4), making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions (5.3), communicating with staff (5.3) and providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff (5.3). Three other staff- and student-related matters--promoting high expectations among staff members (5.2), communicating with students (5.2) and fostering high morale among staff and students (5.2)--also had high means, as did the tasks of enlisting the support of parents (5.2) and allocating resources (5.2). With very few exceptions (no more than 4% on any item), respondents judged themselves to be effective--most frequently "moderately effective"--in each of these areas.

Instructional leadership, on the other hand, was not among the leading effectiveness ratings, and principals gave responses spanning the ineffectiveness-effectiveness scale in connection with obtaining qualified staff. The lowest mean rating related to enlisting the support of the non-parent community (4.3): 12% of respondents considered themselves to be ineffective in performing that function. Their ratings of effectiveness were also relatively low on improving the performance of staff, communicating with community groups, adapting policies and procedures to respond to external change and expectations, identifying community expectations, and coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups (all 4.9). A common characteristic of most of these latter items is the principal's contact with and responsiveness to the school's external environment. In spite of these relatively low ratings, however, all means were above the scale mean of 3.5, suggesting that Alberta elementary school principals generally perceived themselves to be effective in each of the 29 domains investigated.

Best Predictors of Overall Effectiveness of Principals

Regression analysis elicited from the data those elements that may be most fundamental to understanding of the current state of principals' overall effectiveness (Research Question 16). The four best predictors of overall effectiveness are listed in Table 7.3. Not only did one item, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, correlate strongly with overall effectiveness, but it contributed 24.6% of the variance in the dependent variable. Three other variables also added significantly to the prediction analysis: identifying community expectations (a further 8.4%), communicating with staff (5.7%) and allocating tasks appropriately among staff (3.1%). Each variable also correlated strongly with overall effectiveness of principals--a finding that was reinforced by similar results from correlation analysis based on pairwise deletion (predictor 1, r = .51; predictor 2, r = .47; predictor 3, r = .50; predictor 4, r = .48).

Table 7.3

Criteria of Principalship Effectiveness as Predictors of Overall Effectiveness of Principals
(n = 104)

Predictor of Overall Effectiveness of Principals	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	24.6	24.6	.50
2. Identifying community expectations	33.0	8.4	.47
3. Communicating with staff	38.7	5.7	.49
4. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	41.8	3.1	.47

Furthermore, many other variables that were eliminated in the stepwise procedure because of parallel associations with overall effectiveness of principals also exhibited noteworthy independent relationships with that variable:

1. exercising instructional leadership (r = .48);
2. promoting high expectations among staff members (r = .46);
3. fostering high morale among staff and students (r = .45);
4. promoting the achievement of school goals (r = .45);
5. coping with uncertainty and conflict (r = .45);
6. coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments (r = .44);
7. coping with emergencies and overloads of work (r = .44);
8. encouraging high expectations of students (r = .41);

9. allocating resources (r = .40); and
10. evaluating staff members (r = .40).

The four best predictors also correlated strongly with many other individual variables. The first predictor, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, had correlation coefficients exceeding .40 with 12 other variables; closest links were with coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups (.55), coping with emergencies and overloads of work (.52) and communicating with staff (.51), but the focus of eight of the 12 variables was on staff matters. Identifying community expectations, the second best predictor, displayed a strong relationship with the first predictor, but also with nine other variables. Not surprisingly, its distinctive contribution lay in its most pronounced links, which encompassed communicating with community groups (.64), enlisting the support of parents (.58), adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations (.54) and enlisting the support of the non-parent community (.50). This variable also had a strong association with promoting the achievement of school goals. Fifteen variables correlated in the range .41 to .65 with the third predictor, communicating with staff. The foremost relationship was a logical one--with providing feedback to staff--but communication with staff also had much to do with fostering high morale among staff and students (.60) and promoting high expectations among staff members (.54), as well as being reflected in the variable encouraging high expectations of students (.51); predictor 1 emerged again as a further clear link (.51). As the third predictor was staff-oriented, it was understandable that 11 of the 15 marked relationships were with staff-centred variables. The final predictor, allocating tasks appropriately among staff, was likewise linked with predictor 1 and a wide array of other variables. Strongest of the 14 relationships beyond .40 were those with coping with emergencies and overloads of work (.56), coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups (.54) and allocating resources (.50).

In similar vein, other variables which bore moderately strong relationships with overall effectiveness of principals also correlated strongly with many individual variables. Most notably, fostering high morale among staff and students had correlation coefficients ranging from .40 to .69 in connection with 18 other variables. Exercising instructional leadership exhibited coefficients of .45 to .61 with 18 variables. Promoting the achievement of school goals had coefficients exceeding .40 with 14 variables. And two items, encouraging high expectations of students and coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups, each had relationships of similar order with 12 variables. Moreover, *all* variables in the principalship effectiveness investigation seemed to be incorporated in some way in these substantial intercorrelations.

Relationships Between Overall Effectiveness of Principals and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics

Data about the overall effectiveness of principals were compared according to a variety of organizational and personal characteristics which had been ascertained from introductory items in the questionnaire (Research Question 17). As with the job satisfaction and school effectiveness investigations, differences were tested for statistical significance using either an ANOVA technique or, where appropriate, a *t*-test. Many differences were identified, although statistical significance was established in only two instances.

School setting. As Table 7.4 reveals, respondents in city schools viewed their performance slightly more favourably (mean rating 5.17) than did their colleagues in town (5.04) and rural (5.07) schools. At the same time, those responses were also subject to slightly greater variation than was the case with responses obtained from locations outside the cities.

School system. Responses about effectiveness of principals varied markedly among the different types of school jurisdictions. Public districts, which were by far the most populous category of schools in the sample, were associated with the greatest mean rating of effectiveness of principals (5.26)--but also the greatest variability around the

Table 7.4

Means of Overall Effectiveness of Principals Classified by Selected Organizational Characteristics (n = 109)

Organizational Characteristic	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
School Setting				
1. City	71	5.17	0.48	-
2. Town	23	5.04	0.37	
3. Rural	15	5.07	0.46	
Type of School System				
1. Public District	54	5.26	0.48	1,2[1]
2. Separate District	22	4.86	0.35	
3. County	19	5.05	0.40	
4. Division	14	5.14	0.36	

1. Significant at the .10 level, using the Scheffé procedure.

mean (S.D. 0.48). These responses departed by a statistically significant amount from the least effective group, the principals in separate school districts (mean 4.86). Principals in school divisions (5.14) judged their overall effectiveness somewhat more positively than did principals in separate school districts and counties (5.05), but not as highly as those in the public school systems.

School size. Perceptions of principals' effectiveness were compared according to three measures of organizational size: number of students, number of teachers and number of vice-principals. The findings are reported in Table 7.5. On the first comparison, effectiveness was rated highest in schools with 300-399 students (5.22), followed by schools with enrolments that were very low (fewer than 100 students, 5.19) and very large (400 or more, 5.15). A more surprising finding is that principals in schools of more moderate size tended to assign themselves slightly lower ratings of effectiveness (100-199 students, 5.04; 200-299, 5.09). Principals in schools with at least 20 teachers assigned higher ratings to their overall effectiveness (5.22) than did the principals who worked with smaller staffs. Again, effectiveness was lowest in the schools of medium size (10-19 teachers, 5.09). The third comparison also tended to favour the large schools in this regard: principals with two or three vice-principals had a substantially higher mean rating of their own effectiveness (5.33) than that for principals with either one vice-principal (5.13) or none (5.12). Interview responses contradicted these statistical findings. As one principal of a large school commented, "you have to let some things go sometimes. So sometimes I feel that you're less effective [in a large school]. It's easier to focus on 20 things if you've only got 8 people [teachers]."

Table 7.5

Means of Overall Effectiveness of Principals Classified by Selected School Size Characteristics

Characteristic of School Size	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
Number of Students (n = 106)				
1. Fewer than 100	16	5.19	0.54	–
2. 100 - 199	27	5.04	0.44	
3. 200 - 299	23	5.09	0.42	
4. 300 - 399	27	5.22	0.51	
5. 400 - or more	13	5.15	0.38	
Number of Full-Time Equivalent Teachers (n = 106)				
1. Fewer than 10	30	5.13	0.43	–
2. 10 - 19	53	5.09	0.49	
3. 20 or more	23	5.22	0.42	
Number of Vice-Principals (n = 104)				
1. 0	41	5.12	0.46	–
2. 1	54	5.13	0.44	
3. 2 - 3	9	5.33	0.50	

Personal characteristics of principals. As with appraisals of school effectiveness, female principals tended to rate themselves higher on their overall effectiveness (5.29) than did their male counterparts (5.09). In this instance, however, the difference was not statistically significant. Principals of 50 or more years of age were also slightly more positive (5.19) than were principals in their forties (5.12) or younger (5.10). Results of this analysis appear in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6

Means of Overall Effectiveness of Principals Classified by Personal Characteristics of Principals (n = 109)

Personal Characteristic	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
Sex[1]				
1. Female	21	5.29	0.46	-
2. Male	88	5.09	0.45	
Age				
1. Younger than 40	30	5.10	0.48	-
2. 40 - 49	52	5.12	0.43	
3. 50 or older	27	5.19	0.48	

1. Statistical significance analyzed by *t*-test.

Four principals commented in interviews about the influence of the principal's sex on leadership effectiveness. One male principal contended that, because principalship has traditionally been viewed as a male occupation, female administrators who reach that level tend to be dedicated to excellence; therefore, they are often highly effective. A second male principal, on the other hand, believed that "it's difficult for a woman to do that role. . . . unless they have a very supportive husband," for principals' time commitments prevent them from accepting extensive responsibility for child rearing. Neither of the two women principals mentioned this issue. One cited scepticism about their competence and a lack of connections as stimulants to hard work:

> I think women do tend to work very hard to get where they are, because they have to overcome that credibility barrier. It could also be that women . . . have not been able to depend on an old boys' network and therefore [have] gone to academics to

get where they are.

The other female principal believed that "Probably my sex and [young] age were an advantage, because I had more help and more positive support" than male counterparts. At the same time, when informed of the statistical findings about better self-appraisals of effectiveness among female principals, she supported her colleague's explanation: "I think you're seeing in some women in administrative positions the very, very energetic. . . . they're of a nature that they have to have things going and doing well."

Age of principals also attracted individual attention from some interviewees. Contrary to the quantitative findings, remarks tended to link youth with greater effectiveness. As one principal put it, "The younger you are, the more energy you have to go out and do things and push youself and push others. . . . to achieve what they can." Another principal elaborated clearly upon a perceived problem for older principals:

> The majority . . . become satisfied with what they're doing--not in terms of job satisfaction, but satisfied with the job they're doing. Then you're no longer effective. . . . That's not true of everyone. There are dynamic older principals . . . but I think that that's an exception to the rule.

At the same time, a principal who is approaching retirement judged himself to be more effective now than when he was young.

Career aspirations of principals. Table 7.7 summarizes the differences in responses about overall effectiveness of principals based on comparison of long-term career goals of the respondents. Approximately one third of the principals in this study looked forward to pursuing roles other than principalship (such as superintendency, university lecturing and consulting). This group also reflected a slightly higher level of effectiveness (5.19) than that obtained from the principals who were content to remain as school leaders (5.10)--a finding which was consistent with that obtained in relation to perceived effectiveness of their schools.

In the course of an interview, a principal explained why higher aspirations may be linked with greater effectiveness:

> I know of principals who have arrived: they've got the job they wanted. And their focus, then, becomes on just keeping that job and keeping central office happy, keeping the staff happy, keeping the students happy--which is not a bad thing in itself--but they don't look beyond that. . . . The emphasis is not towards change: the emphasis is on the status quo. A person who has aspirations is looking for a change in their own lives. And, because they're looking for a change in their own lives, I think that they're going to be more receptive to changes within the job that they're doing.

An additional comment on one questionnaire, however, is also important:

> It is unfortunate when people use the principalship as a stepping stone in career aspirations. It is too important a position to be treated so mechanically. If a career change transpires as a result, so be it; however, those who treat the position as something you get into for further personal career gain may not be the right people for the job.

A principal who was interviewed agreed with this view: "if you don't want to be more than a principal, you're staying here to run the school the best way you can--not to impress people." Another principal explained why such ambition tends to impose adversely upon the effectiveness of schools:

> The type of people who come in are good PR people. They establish a very positive relationship with the community, with the teachers, with the kids, and everyone likes them. . . . But they don't do any constructive work in the school. . . . they don't change anything--it may not be working, but everybody's happy with it.

Such an assertion runs counter to the foregoing statistical finding of greater effectiveness among principals with aspirations for greater seniority, and calls for some caution in interpreting the self-perceptions expressed in the questionnaire ratings.

Table 7.7

Means of Overall Effectiveness of Principals Classified by Long-Term Career Aspirations of Principals (n = 98)

Career Aspiration	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.[1]
1. Principalship	61	5.10	0.51	-
2. Other Aspirations	37	5.19	0.40	

1. Statistical significance analyzed by *t*-test.

Experience as principals. The data presented in Table 7.8 indicate that self-appraisals of principals' effectiveness were particularly high (5.50) among respondents with 7-9 years of experience in their present schools. This group, however, also exhibited the greatest variability of responses (S.D. 0.53, compared with 0.41-0.47 for other experience categories). Effectiveness ratings were also relatively high among principals with 4-6 years of experience on location (5.23); whereas, incumbents in their first or third year and those with ten or more years in the present school were somewhat lower on the scale (5.00). Surprisingly, overall effectiveness ratings were greatest among principals with no equivalent experience in other schools (5.18) and least among

Table 7.8

Means of Overall Effectiveness of Principals Classified by Years of Experience as Principals
(n = 107)

Years of Experience of Principals	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
In Present Position				
1. 1	12	5.00	0.43	-
2. 2	20	5.20	0.41	
3. 3	12	5.00	0.43	
4. 4 - 6	22	5.23	0.43	
5. 7 - 9	10	5.50	0.53	
6. 10 - 12	19	5.00	0.47	
7. 13 or more	12	5.00	0.43	
In Prior Principalship				
1. 0	38	5.18	0.46	-
2. 1 - 4	22	5.09	0.53	
3. 5 - 8	25	5.12	0.53	
4. 9 or more	22	5.09	0.29	
Total Years in Principalship				
1. 1	7	5.00	0.58	-
2. 2	8	5.25	0.46	
3. 3 - 5	11	4.91	0.30	
4. 6 - 10	27	5.30	0.47	
5. 11 - 15	24	5.13	0.45	
6. 16 - 20	17	5.12	0.49	
7. 21 or more	13	5.00	0.41	

those with 1-4 years or at least nine years in prior principalships (5.09). With regard to total experience, the position is still less clear. As noted above, principals in their first year rated their performance relatively poorly; principals of 21 years standing or more did likewise. Lowest, however, and most consistently so (S.D. 0.30) were the ratings by respondents whose total experience as principals ranged from 3-5 years (mean 4.91). In contrast, respondents with 6-10 years tended to offer the highest ratings (5.30) and those with two years of experience followed close behind (5.25).

In the course of interviews, a number of respondents stated that effectiveness could be expected to increase with increasing years of experience in the job. One principal justified this stance: "The more life situations you deal with, the more you can say, 'I tried that and it worked.' Therefore, when that happens again, you use that experience, and you don't have to do as much experimentation." Another principal shared this opinion but added a qualification: "too much experience sometimes makes people really tired or really complacent." This suggestion, of a possible upper limit to the contribution of experience to effectiveness, lends some support and understanding to the quantitative findings.

Post-secondary education of principals. The last characteristic upon which overall effectiveness levels were compared resulted in the findings displayed in Table 7.9. Educational background of principals seemed to have an outstanding association with the

Table 7.9

Means of Overall Effectiveness of Principals Classified
by Years of Post-Secondary Education of Principals
(n = 107)

Years of Post-Secondary Education	f	Mean	S.D.	sig. diff.
1. 4 or fewer	31	5.03	0.41	
2. 5	26	5.35	0.49	1,3[1]
3. 6 or more	50	5.08	0.44	

[1] Significant at the .10 level, using the Scheffé procedure.

school leaders' perceptions of their effectiveness. More specifically, respondents with five years of post-secondary education rated their effectiveness significantly higher (5.35) than did respondents with either fewer (5.03) or more (5.08) years of academic preparation. Differences of this magnitude could therefore be expected to occur also in the Alberta elementary school population from which this sample was drawn.

Importance of Criteria for Judging the Overall Effectiveness of Principals

The purpose of Research Question 18 was to ascertain the criteria that are most important for assessing the overall effectiveness of an elementary school principal. To this end, percentage frequencies and means of questionnaire responses on 29 criteria are recorded in Table 7.10. As with the analysis of importance reported in the previous chapter, the effectiveness of principals seems to encompass high performance in many domains; responses from the majority of principals reflected some measure of importance of all criteria considered. Even so, certain criteria stood out as particularly crucial. Of chief importance were communicating with staff (4.0 on the four-point scale), making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions (3.9), fostering high morale among staff and students (3.9) and providing feedback to staff (3.9); in these, the emphasis lay with staff matters. Least important criteria included enlisting the support of the non-parent community (3.0)--which 21% of respondents judged to be of only "slight" importance--adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations (3.4), coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments (3.4) and communicating with community groups (3.5). As the percentage frequency distributions revealed, there was some degree of dissension on each of these criteria; nevertheless, the weight of opinion carried the mean ratings beyond the scale mean of 2.5. And, on most other items, disagreement was registered only about whether criteria were "moderately" or "extremely important."

Provision was also made for principals to include in their questionnaire responses other criteria that they considered to be important for judging the effectiveness of elementary school principals. Only two respondents took this opportunity. One reinforced the importance of the principal's relationship with the superintendent, and also advanced three new criteria: "effectiveness of time management"; "accessibility to all staff"; and use of "participatory decision-making." The other respondent focussed on the principal's "impartial treatment of staff" and perceptiveness in "identify[ing] problems from the symptoms and not deal[ing] with the symptoms only." In each case, ratings of importance and personal effectiveness were high.

In the course of the ten interviews, principals were asked to state "the prime indicator" of an elementary school principal's effectiveness. While this question seemed to attract particular interest, the principals exhibited little consensus and surprisingly little certainty and evidence of forethought about the major criteria for judging their effectiveness as school leaders.

For one respondent, communication with and approachability for staff members most clearly evidences the principal's effectiveness; he referred to "teachers feeling comfortable in communicating with the principal and coming to talk about new programs or ideas." He added that "parents feeling comfortable at the school" is also an important sign of effective leadership--a view that another principal shared. One respondent commended instructional leadership by the principal, and another valued the principal's effort in defending new initiatives in the face of criticism--"letting teachers know that you're behind them, and shielding--going in to bat for them." "Approbation by staff members" was the preferred criterion for one principal, whereas another would assess school administrators first according to whether or not they are "facilitating" the achievement of "the goals of the school and the staff." As she explained, "I see my job as being a facilitator, a servant, a helper of people to best achieve their goals, be it the parent, the student, the teachers." No principal elaborated further about any of these matters.

One pattern in the responses, however, was the advancement of multiple criteria as collectively important guides to effectiveness; and the comments of interviewees tended to incorporate attitudes or actions of teachers, students and parents. For example, one principal considered that the principal's effectiveness can best be judged according to whether "there's a lot of complaints from parents or if there's a lot of unhappiness amongst the staff or a lot of discipline problems in the students." A second regarded "the school atmosphere. . . . the morale of teachers . . . and the parent satisfaction" as "those things [that] are largely a product of the principal's effectiveness." According to a third, three questions need to be asked about principals: "Is there a positive school climate, and why? Is there program development going on? How are all the kids going if you do standardized testing?" In constrast to this latter comment, another principal commented that "I certainly don't look upon test results as related to effectiveness of the principal. . . I think those things go in cycles."

To derive a fuller understanding of some criteria investigated in the questionnaire and of the reasons for their high or low ranking of relative importance, the principals who were interviewed were requested to comment specifically about selected aspects of the principal's work. Many variables were presented for consideration, so comments tended to be brief and, in some instances, superficial. Nevertheless, the following valuable ideas were obtained.

One principal confined himself to observations about the predominance of staff- and student-related issues in the highly rated criteria adduced from the questinnaire data: "The prime purpose for your operation is the students, and your work team is the staff, so it's just understandable that those are the ones that would come out on top."

Beyond this perception, the four staff matters chosen for examination received particular attention and support. One principal underscored the centrality of the principal's communication with staff: "Education is basically about educating children, and they're the ones who are doing it. And the only reason for administration is so that they can do their job. So teachers are critically important to the principal's effectiveness." This assertion led him to advocate regular and open communication as a means of developing teamwork and a sense of "importance" about the educational function. Another interviewee recommended weekly staff meetings as one vehicle that is available to the principal to foster two-way communication with staff members.

Provision of feedback to teachers was also highly valued by respondents. They tended to link the principal's role in providing feedback with the evaluative responsibility. One principal mentioned the formative evaluation, or "coaching" of teachers, in which effective principals tend to engage. Another likewise emphasized that the most useful feedback that can be given to teachers is constructive criticism based on extensive observation of instructional practices in the classroom.

One principal presented good staff morale and acquisition of qualified staff as the most fundamental measure of effectiveness:

> The key to running a good school is having a good team, and having people believe they are a good team, and fostering that, encouraging good relationships, making people feel that what they're doing is important, that they have the support of one another and of me. And I think *that leads* to fostering high expectations and morale of students. It is hopeless to try to do that without having it amongst your staff. And, in fact, it makes it easier for the principal to make timely and appropriate decisions.

Other principals also favoured a focus on staff morale in effectiveness appraisal; for, as one remarked, teaching "sometimes tends to be a pretty thankless job." In connection with obtaining qualified staff, one principal noted the importance of establishing the competence of teachers whose services are obtained. She added, "If you haven't got qualified staff, all your time is going to be taken up looking after the person that is having difficulty."

The principal's effectiveness in fostering high expectations and morale of students also attracted frequent comments of approval. According to one principal, "We are effective if we can let people [students] know that we trust you to do well and we would like you to use all of your talents." A colleague stressed the need for "high but reasonable expectations" wherein children are encouraged to work "at the level of which they are capable." He also defended the principal's part in promoting high expectations of and among students:

> Students . . . set high standards for themselves. . . . because they know the teacher sets high standards for them. . . . And these stem from the principal. Individual teachers in the classrooms will do that--some of them--but it's something that you only see in every classroom when you've got effective administration.

The principals also admitted that the quality of a school administrator's decision making is "critical" for effective performance. In this regard, one principal emphasized the need for close cooperation with the assistant principal; for this permits fuller examination of "what would be the best possible decision, [and] what would be the repercussions of this." The weight of opinion, however, focussed on "involving staff in the decision." One principal explained the benefit simply: "If you have the privilege of more input, then your decision should be a better one. If it's a closed shop, then you're going to fumble." For another principal, the cost of failing to delegate and to involve staff was more concerning: without involvement, "the teacher is tempted to feel, 'I'm not involved, so I don't have a stake in this'." Another respondent added that the principal should also include the children in decisions wherever possible.

The matter of enlisting the support of the non-parent community was given individual attention in an effort to account for its relatively low ranking among the criteria of effectiveness. As with the questionnaire responses, opinion about the importance of this criterion tended to be divided. Five interviewees deemed it to be a low priority concern for school principals: "You need to be aware of them, but, considering what all the others [criteria] are, it has to be the least important." One of these principals was preoccupied by a lack of parental involvement and satisfaction, and preferred to view "first things first." Two others argued that the non-parent community matters only in the event of complaints or "major tax increases." A fourth principal acknowledged that "I know it's the big thing now in terms of marketing the school" but attributed her lack of regard for such a criterion to a lack of community interest in the work of schools. She added that, "in order to do that [enlist support from the non-parent community], principals need training, principals need time . . . to meet the neighbours, to go to community meetings. Right now, I don't think I've got the time to do that." The fifth respondent saw community support as a matter of some consequence for principals but believed that such an assessment of effectiveness is difficult to obtain and that support and involvement of parents would serve as a proxy measure.

Five principals, on the other hand, saw the support of community members other than parents as a "very important" or "reasonably important" criterion of a principal's effectiveness. To a community school principal, "it's one of the crucial elements"; and he commented on a practice in his school of surveying "user groups" annually "to see if we are, indeed, serving a need." A principal in a rural school also commended this criterion very strongly, and referred to his school's reliance on "non-parent volunteers as resource personnel" and suppliers of needed equipment. A principal in a small town location, who saw a need for the principal to gain "everybody's support," commended the "parent advisory committee" as a "mouthpiece" and feedback mechanism for the principal to use in fostering support in the wider community. A principal in a city school noted that she depends instead upon "seniors' teas" and regular communication of information through local newspapers. Two of the respondents added that the effectiveness of a principal should also be weighed in the light of community size, for the non-parent community tends to be more accessible and responsive in rural settings and small towns.

Criterion Effectiveness and Importance

To match principals' self-acknowledged strengths against the most important criteria of effectiveness, rank-ordered correlation analyses were performed. The Spearman coefficient of correlation for the two sets of data was .65 ($p < .01$), reflecting a high degree of association. However, a large number of tied ranks made the Kendall coefficient (.51; $p < .01$) more appropriate. Even so, a clear relationship seemed to be evident.

To probe this matter further, mean ratings on the ten most effective dimensions were compared with those for the ten most important effectiveness criteria. The usefulness of this analysis is constrained by the limited number of items considered and by a consequent need to eliminate items whose means closely approximated those of the highly ranked criteria. Table 7.11, which reports the comparisons of means and rankings, highlights consistencies as well as some apparent disparities.

On eight highly important items, principals also judged themselves to be particularly effective; these parallel findings indicate desirable attributes and/or efforts that seem to have been well directed. On the other hand, principals may have been giving unwarranted attention to resource allocation and the exercise of exemplary behaviour at school, for these did not emerge among the most highly ranked issues for the principals. More concerning still are three items which may well be central to effective work of principals but which--in relative terms, at least--deserve careful consideration. Respondents believed that principals should be judged very closely on obtaining qualified staff and providing feedback to staff, yet performance in these domains did not rate so highly in comparison with other work responsibilities. In addition, principals were seen as having an important role to play in improving the performance of staff, yet their self-assessments of effectiveness resulted in this dimension being second poorest in terms of performance.

As well as examining mean ratings of effectiveness, variables that were best predictors of or most strongly correlated with the current overall effectiveness variable were checked for centrality among the 29 importance variables. As recorded above, the variable making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions (predictor 1) was judged to be of special importance for gauging overall effectiveness (ranked fourth in importance),

Table 7.11

Comparison of the Ten Most Effective Aspects and Ten Most Important Criteria for Judging the Overall Effectiveness of School Principals

Criterion	Effectiveness Level		Importance	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
1. Exercising exemplary behaviour at school	5.366	1	3.759	14.5
2. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	5.286	2	3.893	4
3. Communicating with staff	5.277	3	3.973	1
4. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	5.259	4	3.786	10.5
5. Promoting high expectations among staff members	5.223	5.3	3.786	10.5
6. Communicating with students	5.223	5.3	3.795	9
7. Enlisting the support of parents	5.223	5.3	3.848	7.5
8. Fostering high morale among staff and students	5.207	8	3.892	5
9. Allocating resources	5.179	9	3.527	24
10. Encouraging high expectations of students	5.126	10	3.910	3
11. Obtaining qualified staff	5.027	17	3.911	2
12. Providing feedback to staff	5.107	13	3.866	6
13. Improving the performance of staff	4.884	28	3.848	7.5

as was predictor 3, communicating with staff (ranked first). However, identifying community expectations (predictor 2) and allocating tasks appropriately among staff (predictor 4), which also predicted substantial variance in the current overall effectiveness levels of principals, were among the lower rankings (23rd and 17th of 29 variables). Furthermore, exercising instructional leadership and six of the nine other strongest correlates of overall effectiveness were outside the ten highest rankings of criteria in terms of importance. These findings tempered the more general results of rank-ordered correlation analysis. They indicated that, at least based on the perceptions of the principals themselves, the levels of overall effectiveness among elementary school principals tended not to be markedly influenced by the factors that were said to be most critical for effective performance.

One final check further emphasized these incongruities in the data. Importance ratings were used in regression analysis to identify criteria that best predicted the variance in current overall effectiveness of principals. This analysis identified only two criteria as significant contributors: communicating with staff (9.0%); and identifying community expectations (another 3.9%). The latter criterion was ranked 23rd in mean importance and, although the former was the most important of all the criteria, it still contributed little of the total variance in current effectiveness levels. Moreover, the stepwise entering of importance variables was associated with correlation coefficients ranging from .02 to only .30 with the overall effectiveness variable.

Constraints on the Effectiveness of Principals

Research Question 19 involved identification of factors that make effective performance difficult for principals. Respondents advanced a wide range of inhibiting influences in open-ended questionnaire responses as well as during follow-up interviews, and these form the subject of this section.

Principals' workload and time. For 24 questionnaire respondents in this study, principals' work commitments and associated shortage of time served as a constraint on their effectiveness. Twelve of those respondents alluded to the onerous nature of the task. Some wrote merely of a general "work overload." Others were more specific in noting the "paper work barrage," "number of meetings," "wide range of issues to be dealt with during the day," "crises" to be dealt with, "administrivia" and "management tasks that take time needed for instructional leadership," as well as the competing and "constant demands and time limitations placed on elementary principals who teach full time, supervise their share, and participate in extra-curricular activities and community affairs."

Although the problems are clearly linked, "time constraints" occupied the attention of even more questionnaire respondents (15). Principals mentioned a "shortage of administrative time," "lack of time to properly complete important tasks," "not enough time available to communicate with students," "not enough time to implement," a "shortage of time for research updating," a "lack of time due to 70% of time spent teaching," and "a lack of *time* to do the important tasks--curriculum supervision, instructional supervision." As one respondent lamented, "If only I could find the time to do everything I'm expected to do or even wish to do!"

Five of the ten principals who were interviewed also felt constrained by a shortage of time. For one, "it's the lack of quality time--the time face to face, the time in the class, the time to be able to give the energy and to recognize the accomplishments of children and the supervisors of instruction." Another alleged that "the expectation that I can be an effective teacher in the classroom and also run the school" involves "an inordinate amount of time," and this deprives her of the opportunity to implement "all those wonderful ideas." A third outlined the multiple time commitments of teaching, counselling, school-based budgeting and interviewing prospective members of staff. Another principal added to this list other time-consuming activities, namely, fund raising and dealing with parents.

Inadequacy of resources. Eight principals saw "inadequate financial resources" as well as their own deficient administrative preparation and lack of information as barriers to their effectiveness as school leaders. Most remarked on the problems associated with limited availability of funds; they referred to such matters as "poor physical facilities" and a "lack of resources to put into place programs which are needed (eg) purchase of professional development for staff, new equipment for students." External budgetary constraint was also said to have the effect of restraining principals' freedom to influence school affairs as they desire.

One interviewee also commented on the effects of "monetary restraint": "loss of staff," "larger classes" and "cutback of supplies and equipment." Others concentrated more on their inadequate preparation and continuing education for effective principalship. One was particularly candid about the uncertainty and reduced effectiveness resulting from a lack of initial training:

> It's been an immersion by fire. You've worked in schools, and that's been your experience. . . . I feel like I'm flying by the seat of my pants sometimes, and you *hope* that you're making good decisions. . . . I don't really feel qualified to do some of the things--like labour relations; if you've got a grievance with the custodial union, I've never been involved with that before, and it can be very intimidating and time consuming.

To remedy this problem, he recommended "an internship, or an apprenticeship, where you could spend time--maybe a year--where you go in various settings and actually have the chance to do a lot of the job aspects." Another principal was more concerned about the need for ongoing training for principals--"in-service, so that we can grow . . . we need to have feedback from research. . . . [and] We can learn from one another." On the other hand, another principal noted the availability of continuing education programs for improving leadership effectiveness, and added, "if you're an effective administrator, nothing" should be a serious constraint.

Students. Only one questionnaire response made reference to students as an inhibitor of principals' effectiveness as leaders. That person wrote only in general terms of "too many behavior problems in one school."

Parents and the community. Of greater concern for nine questionnaire respondents were adverse effects on their effectiveness caused by some parents and community influences. Two respondents noted the encumbrance of having to deal with persistent behavioural problems at school because of families that have single parents or that exhibit a "lack of care of children by parents." More respondents, however, were troubled by parents failing to support the school's work and actions; unsupportive attitudes were said to result in "poor parental cooperation," a "lack of support from parents," "resistance toward educational changes," "parent and community inhibitions in communicating with the school" and a "loss of credibility where parents complain directly to central office personnel or involve trustees." One principal's comment reflected his personal frustration arising from parental neglect and expectation:

> I love my job and I am good at it, but some of the parents in the community are driving me crazy--many want a school like they went to and many do not provide their children with proper care or emotional support. Teachers and administrators have to be *social workers.*

Constituencies' competing expectations of principals. One important constraint identified by seven principals related to conflicting and burdensome expectations of the school leader's responsibilities. Some respondents commented on the role conflict arising out of "varying expectations from different communities." Most principals, however, were more concerned about the sheer weight of external expectations. In their view, effectiveness can be constrained by "too many expectations of the role of principal"--especially the expectations of those "beyond the school level." They felt that the "continually changing and expanding role of the principal" reflects "unreasonable demands of the community and society as a whole" and that this role is beyond the capacity of the principal to fulfil effectively.

Much of the criticism in this regard was levelled at the expectations of administrators in the central offices. Indeed, this sector was a major source of concern for the respondents.

Attitudes, demands and deficiencies of school systems. The second most frequently advanced focus of constraint on principals' effectiveness (mentioned in 23 questionnaires) was the adverse influence of the school jurisdiction. As mentioned above, many respondents regarded the expectations of central office personnel as unreasonably heavy; one principal concluded that the school leader thereby faces a "constant expansion of role." Another respondent's comment was disturbing:

> The school board either suggests plans or imposes plans designed to improve the schools and school system. As the leader in the school, the principal is the person designated to implement these suggested or imposed plans. These plans for changes seem to be generated in a relentless manner and make the principalship a "dumping ground" for change.

Principals are also expected to work long hours. As one principal remarked in connection with one of the specified criteria (coping with emergencies and overloads of work), "Central Office has a rather cavalier attitude about deciding what principals can accomplish only by dint of working Saturday and Sunday!!"

Jurisdictions attracted further criticism for reducing principals' effectiveness by failing to provide adequately for the professional preparation, development and information needs of their principals. As noted earlier, some respondents were critical of their "lack of pre-job training for the principal." Others saw their effectiveness as limited by a continuing "lack or difficulty of taking advantage of administrator professional development." Another respondent was concerned about a shortage of information from school systems which leaves principals with a "lack of knowledge of resources to guide students and parents in critical situations." Two more were concerned about the "lack of a communication network with colleagues--principals"; one of them advocated the creation of "a forum to exchange ideas with other principals" within the school system.

Five principals saw their effectiveness as limited by a "lack of control over assignment of teachers to schools." Commenting on one of the specified effectiveness criteria, obtaining qualified staff, one respondent observed that "Teachers are placed. We rarely get to choose!" One of the other principals who felt constrained by "not being able to have a say in hiring" added, "if a principal could 'hand' pick his staff, we would have schools that are much more effective." One of the principals who were interviewed outlined the need:

> You can't be an effective principal if you don't have the support of central office, in terms of qualified staff. . . . My effectiveness depends on the ability of people [teachers] to improve and, if I get people that won't do that, then I have to get rid of them. I can't do it, so we have to have people [at central office] who can.

This criticism formed part of a larger concern among principals about their "lack of autonomy" and "lack of authority and power." One respondent, in particular, felt sufficiently troubled to add a comment on his questionnaire about the problems facing principals as "lower level decision makers":

> Principals are genuinely interested in school effectiveness. However, they don't feel they are part of the decision making process although they are described as instructional leaders and told they are the most important factor. When plans are imposed which a principal must implement the principal is put in a difficult position in terms of credibility, staff satisfaction, morale.

Another respondent had a similar thrust in questioning the appropriateness of one effectiveness criterion, coordinating the development and promoting the achievement of school goals: "Very often the goals I'd establish have to take second place to the ones central office has set for us as a *system*." Another also wrote critically of "too little actual power concerning things about which he [the principal] is held accountable!"

A final constraining aspect of school system operation was a perceived "lack of support from senior administrators." In the opinion of three respondents, the effectiveness of principals can be limited by an "indecisive School Board, lack of direction/cooperation from the superintendent" and a "lack of understanding at Central Office of the challenge." One interviewee shared this concern.

These forces also operate in conjunction to diminish the effectiveness of principals and their schools. One principal's comment on a questionnaire alluded to many of the foregoing constraints; in doing so, it conveyed the frustration that seemed to characterize the principalship for some incumbents:

> Schools are not what they used to be! We may be more advanced in teaching methods and procedures, however the role of the Principal is far too involved in providing all things to all people. It appears that we have more people in consultative positions but not enough happening on the front lines. Some schools/ours require additional services. We are dealing with much more sophisticated youngsters, or perhaps the label is street wise. How can you teach

> math, social etc when behavior and lack of parental support underlies so much of our effectiveness. We can't do the job we want to do because of the lack of support in the schools. . . . Lets wake up before its too late.

Shortcomings of staff. Somewhat surprisingly, only eight of the 112 principals viewed teachers as sufficiently constraining on school effectiveness to deserve mention. Among those who did so, criticism focussed on competence as well as attitudes. Two respondents proposed that the principal's effectiveness is limited by "poor quality staff." More prevalent concerns were those of staff disposition: "the staff member who opposes most decisions," "pre-set opinions of a few teachers," "lack of cooperation of staff to improve the school," "hesitancy of staff to have full ownership of school goals" and "obtaining a staff that has already developed a common attitude about education and resistance to new ideas." "Low staff morale" was also mentioned in this context. Two interviewees recorded similar concerns about "unenthusiastic, uncommitted staff" and staff members who "don't like change . . . who could stymie change to quite an extent." Another principal added that the heavy workloads of teachers compound this problem of resistance to change.

Characteristics of principals. Principals in this study blamed the faults of school administrators for ineffective leadership much more commonly than they blamed teachers: 19 questionnaire respondents reported various personal deficiencies of principals as factors that detract from the quality of their performance. Professional factors included "poor personal and professional self-image"; "inability to sort and prioritize the multi-faceted external factors"; "lack of administrative skill"; "trying to do too many different jobs"; having a "poor association with their staff and students, central office administration, and the community"; "failing to enlist parent and C.O. support"; "making *too many* decisions independently"; being a "poor communicator (not a 'people' person)--more a manager than an instructional, inspiring leader"; and exhibiting "poor decision making skills" and "poor interpersonal skills." Other undesirable attributes were more personal: "doubt!--the principal's lack of confidence"; "indecision"; "failing to recognize that we all have some shortcomings (realism)"; and a "lack of patience, sense of humor, love of children, and understanding." Effectiveness was also said to suffer where the principal is "unenthusiastic, unmotivated"--where the principal displays a "lack of interest in current influences on education."

Organizational features. According to two respondents, factors inherent in the organization may also impede the principal's effectiveness. One commented on the influence of "too large student population" and another on "inadequate facilities"; neither respondent elaborated on the nature of the problem raised.

Pervading these data on the effectiveness of principals was a consistent pattern that also needs to be reported. Principals who rated their own and their schools' effectiveness highly usually recorded professional or personal deficiencies of principals themselves as constraints on effectiveness: on the other hand, principals who rated their schools as less effective tended to blame external causes.

Summary

All principals in this study regarded themselves as generally effective school leaders; most rated themselves as "moderately effective." Dimensions of greatest effectiveness were their exemplary behaviour at school, their timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, their communication with staff, and their provision of an appropriate work environment for students and staff. Effectiveness ratings were lowest in relation to enlisting the support of the non-parent community; even so, principals saw themselves as being effective in some measure on this and all other criteria examined.

The best predictors of the global effectiveness variable were making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, identifying community expectations, communicating with staff, and allocating tasks appropriately among staff. Many other variables also exhibited strong statistical relationships with overall effectiveness and intercorrelations with other criterion variables.

Analysis of overall effectiveness of principals according to selected attributes of schools and principals revealed a number of patterns. Self-assessments of effectiveness were highest in city locations and public school districts. With regard to school size, effectiveness responses were most favourable in schools with moderately large enrolments, many teachers and more than one vice-principal. Female principals, older principals and principals with five years of post-secondary education rated themselves as somewhat more effective than principals with other personal and educational attributes.

Each of the criteria specified in the questionnaire was rated as important for judging the effectiveness of elementary school principals. Interview findings also established the need to use a range of criteria in effectiveness assessment. Based on the quantitative findings, the most important variables were the principal's effectiveness in communicating with staff, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, fostering high morale among staff and students, and providing feedback to staff. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community emerged as the least important criterion. Interview responses helped to explain this low priority for principals: individuals cited a lack of community interest in school activities, the irrelevance of community opinion except for its influence on tax increases, and principals' shortage of time and preparation for this task.

Some of the principals' self-appraisals of greatest effectiveness matched their perceptions of most important criteria. On the other hand, they also regarded their performance as relatively less effective in some very important areas, such as improving the performance of staff and obtaining qualified staff; further statistical analysis demonstrated a pervasive incongruity between importance ratings and effectiveness assessments.

Principals identified a range of institutional and personal constraints on their effectiveness. They referred to work and time demands on principals, insufficiency of resources, parental, community and school system deficiencies and expectations, conflicting expectations of principals, inadequacies of staff, students and principals, as well as other organizational hindrances.

CHAPTER 8

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE CONSTRUCTS

The central research question that linked the three major constructs in this study was expressed as follows: *What relationships exist among perceptions of school effectiveness, the effectiveness of principals and the job satisfaction of principals in elementary schools?* More specifically, this question involved inquiry in connection with Research Questions 20-23:

20. To what extent are the overall job satisfaction of principals, overall effectiveness of schools and overall effectiveness of principals related?
21. In what ways are the job satisfaction of principals and school effectiveness related?
22. In what ways are the job satisfaction of principals and the effectiveness of principals related?
23. In what ways are the effectiveness of schools and the effectiveness of principals related?

These questions were examined initially through quantitative analysis of individual variables derived from principals' questionnaire responses. Findings from correlation analysis were supplemented by responses from the follow-up interviews with selected principals.

Relationships Among the Overall Variables

In connection with Research Question 20, principals' global ratings were intercorrelated to determine the extent of their association. A coefficient of .27 ($n = 110$; $p < .01$) was obtained from Pearson correlation analysis of principals' overall job satisfaction and the overall effectiveness of schools. Overall job satisfaction exhibited a coefficient of .31 ($p < .01$) with overall effectiveness of principals. However, correlation of the two overall effectiveness variables produced a much higher coefficient of .65 ($p < .01$).

Based on these findings, there appeared to be only a weak positive relationship between principals' job satisfaction and the two performance variables. On the other hand, the link between the effectiveness variables proved to be much stronger; and, although no causality can be inferred from correlational analysis, this relationship tended to support a logical assertion that principals' perceived that their effectiveness contributed substantially to the effectiveness of their schools. This assertion also found support in the findings from interviews.

To gain a fuller understanding of links among the three satisfaction and effectiveness constructs, each overall variable and the variables that emerged as most central to it were examined for statistical association with dimensions of the other two constructs. Interview findings also helped to enhance understanding about some of the relationships. The remainder of this chapter presents those findings.

Job Satisfaction and School Effectiveness

To investigate the relevance of aspects of school effectiveness for the job satisfaction of elementary school principals (Research Question 21), the overall job satisfaction variable was used as the dependent variable in stepwise multiple linear regression and item correlation analyses of all school effectiveness variables. As the data in Table 8.1 indicate, the regression analysis established eight school effectiveness variables that contributed significantly to the variance in overall job satisfaction of principals.

The school's effectiveness in displaying staff cooperation and cohesion bore a systematic relationship with overall job satisfaction, both in an individual sense ($r = .41$) and through its absorption of contributions by parallel variables (contribution to variance 16.5%). As the low correlation coefficients of the remaining predictors revealed, however, no other predictor provided a substantial individual contribution to

Table 8.1

School Effectiveness Criteria as Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction
(n = 95)

Predictor of Overall Job Satisfaction	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	16.5	16.5	.41
2. Maximizing the development of creativity	20.4	3.9	.33
3. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	24.9	4.5	.03
4. Making efficient use of staff time	28.7	3.8	.30
5. Enforcing behavioural rules among students	32.5	3.8	.22
6. Maintaining low turnover of staff	35.7	3.2	.27
7. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	39.0	3.3	.07
8. Maintaining communication with the community	45.6	6.6	.26

understanding of overall job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the high total contribution (45.6%) showed that these many aspects of school effectiveness had a collective bearing on principals' overall feeling of job satisfaction. A common feature of the first six predictors was their emphasis on attributes and behaviours of staff.

Beyond the prediction analysis, all but two of the school effectiveness items exhibited correlation coefficients with overall job satisfaction ranging from .02 to .32 , and most of these were in the lower range. Other than the best predictor, which pairwise correlation analysis disclosed as having a coefficient with overall job satisfaction of .42, only one variable, maintaining an appropriate school climate, displayed even a moderate degree of association with principals' ratings of overall job satisfaction (r = .36). A noteworthy feature of that variable, nevertheless, was that it also attracted the highest effectiveness ratings and was the best predictor and correlate of the overall effectiveness of schools.

To check for more subtle satisfaction-organizational performance connections, the four job facets that were the best predictors and the two other strongest correlates of principals' overall job satisfaction (detailed in Chapter 5) were also subjected to Pearson product-moment correlation analysis with all school effectiveness variables. Predictor 1 from that prior analysis had a correlation coefficient with the overall school effectiveness variable of only .07 and did not exceed .40 with any individual school effectiveness item. The second predictor, the principal's social position in the community, was associated with overall school effectiveness only to the extent of .26, although two other coefficients exceeded .40: obtaining community support (r = .45) and displaying staff commitment to the school (r = .44). Predictor 3, the authority associated with the principal's position, had little in common with overall effectiveness of schools (r = .19) but was moderately related to obtaining community support (r = .43) and experiencing minimal deviant behaviour among students (r = .42). Further removed from school effectiveness was predictor 4: its coefficient with overall school effectiveness was . 23 and it exhibited no relationships of any substantial magnitude.

As already noted in Chapter 5, the first of two other strong job satisfaction correlates, sense of accomplishment as an administrator, was linked statistically with the overall school effectiveness variable only to the extent of .24. It also had a correlation coefficient beyond .40 in association with only one school effectiveness item--maintaining an appropriate school climate (r = .43)--although this was the most central of the school effectiveness dimensions. The other aspect of the principal's job satisfaction examined was the competence of teachers in handling professional duties outside their classrooms. This variable also bore only a slight association with the overall effectiveness of schools (r = .27), although item correlations established more promising links between it and eight dimensions of school effectiveness: displaying staff commitment to the school (r = .61); showing a high level of staff motivation (r =

.56); maximizing the morale of the staff (r = .54); displaying staff cooperation and cohesion (r = .54); maintaining high expectations of staff (r = .51); making efficient use of staff time (r = .49); maximizing staff job satisfaction (r = .45); and using appropriate teaching methods (r = .42).

To summarize these results, principals' perceptions of school effectiveness in displaying cooperation and cohesion and, to a lesser extent, in maintaining an appropriate school climate, seemed to represent the only elements of the performance of schools that bore substantial direct relationships with principals' overall feelings of job satisfaction. Other links appeared to be less direct. One such focus was the interaction of staff performance and attitudes with the principal's satisaction about staff members' competence; another was the association between the principal's social position in the community and the effectiveness of schools in obtaining community support and displaying commitment by staff. However, no other substantial relationships were evident.

In addition to the foregoing analyses of the range of school effectiveness variables in conjunction with overall job satisfaction, equivalent procedures were pursued to investigate the relevance of each job satisfaction variable for the overall effectiveness of schools. To this end, stepwise multiple linear regression analysis using job facets as predictors of overall effectiveness of schools identified five significant satisfaction items. These are reported in Table 8.2.

The cumulative contribution of these items to the variance in the dependent variable was substantial (32.4%), reflecting an apparent link between principals' job satisfaction and the effectiveness of schools. On the other hand, only the first predictor, satisfaction with the principal's relationships with students, bore a strong independent relationship with effectiveness (r = .44), so the nature of other associations could not be ascertained.

In respect of other item correlations, the overall effectiveness of schools appeared to bear no substantial relationships with the majority of satisfaction variables; most were

Table 8.2

Job Satisfaction Items as Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness
(n = 91)

Predictor of Overall School Effectiveness	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. The principal's relationships with students	19.5	19.5	.44
2. Successful completion of projects and tasks	29.2	9.7	.37
3. Teachers' attitudes toward change	32.4	3.2	.25

in the range -.04 to .33. One job facet was an exception: successful completion of projects and tasks (r = .41, based on pairwise deletion of missing responses).

To probe school effectiveness and principals' satisfaction still further, the three significant predictors of overall effectiveness of schools and the three other highly correlated school effectiveness dimensions (reported in Chapter 6) were also subjected to Pearson correlation analysis, and the outcome was more positive. Although predictor 1, maintaining an appropriate school climate, had only a moderate degree of association with overall job satisfaction (r = .36), it did vary systematically with four other satisfaction variables that focussed on student matters and the principal's sense of accomplishment. The second predictor displayed a slightly weaker relationship with overall effectiveness (r = .32), although coefficients for three satisfaction items (reflecting various emphases) exceeded .40. The third predictor, maintaining high expectations of staff, was still further removed from overall job satisfaction (r = .24), but item correlation coefficients with three teacher-related facets surpassed .40.

The strongest of the other three school effectiveness correlates, displaying staff commitment to the school, had a limited relationship with overall job satisfaction of principals (r = .32). On the other hand, nine clear correlations with individual facet satisfaction items were noted, ranging from .61 on teachers' competence in handling duties outside their classrooms to .41 on the help the principal gives teachers and students; moreover, these items related almost exclusively and most strongly to satisfaction with the work of teachers. The second strongest correlate of school effectiveness, maintaining high expectations of students, exhibited only a slight association with the overall job satisfaction of principals (r = .14); correlation coefficients of .40 or more occurred with only two satisfaction items--both to do with the attitudes and attainment of students. The third correlate, maximizing the morale of staff, also had a low coefficient of correlation with overall job satisfaction (r = .29); however, much stronger coefficients were revealed in connection with satisfaction on five facets, all of which related to contacts with and the work and attitudes of teachers.

Specific variables that displayed high correlations with the foregoing dimensions of school effectiveness are not reported individually here, for they reflected no consistent pattern of links between job satisfaction and school effectiveness. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to conclude that the performance of schools on a range of criteria--especially those concerning teachers and students--had some noticeable if obscure link with principals' satisfaction via specific facets of the job. This outcome added force to the more readily identifiable link between the global effectiveness and satisfaction variables via two specific job facets: the principal's relationships with students, and successful completion of projects and tasks.

Interview responses added considerably to understanding of connections between the job satisfaction and school effectiveness constructs. When questioned about whether such a relationship exists, most interviewees replied in the affirmative. As one principal expressed it, "I suppose my job satisfaction and the effectiveness of the school are highly correlated."

Among those who concurred with this view, two principals contended that organizational effectiveness is a product of the principal's job satisfaction. Both defended this stance by asserting the effect of the principal's affective state on the atmosphere at school; in the words of one, " If you like your job, you like your surroundings, [and] you like the people you're working with, it would affect the morale or atmosphere in the school."

Most principals, on the other hand, emphasized instead that the principal's "satisfaction tends to be dependent on whether the school is operating effectively." One argued that "I don't get satisfaction unless I think my school's effective." Another tried to substantiate this view:

> I believe some of my job satisfaction would come about because of the effectiveness of the school, and when we look at the other side of it--the effectiveness of the school coming from my job satisfaction--I wouldn't see that as being closely related. . . . Sometimes I don't feel very satisfied about the job I'm doing--I feel I should be doing more--but, on the other hand, I'm told that we have an effective school, and . . . that helps me maintain some job satisfaction.

A fourth principal was more specific in delineating a school effectiveness dimension that partially accounts for the principal's job satisfaction: "One thing is the goals. . . . I say, 'This is what we set out to achieve this year. Did we get there?' And I guess that would be part of the job satisfaction."

One respondent agreed with the majority view about causality but added that the connection between satisfaction and school effectiveness can be interactive. In his view,

> If I'm not satisfied in my work, my job, it's got to affect the effectiveness of the school. . . . And it works the other way--it has to. . . . If I hear people say, or if I see, that the school is effective, certainly that's satisfying.

While the foregoing comments stressed the positive nature of a satisfaction-school effectiveness relationship, one principal further explained that constraints on school effectiveness can prejudice the job satisfaction of the principal. When asked about the most dissatisfying aspect of the principalship, he replied,

> Part of it is the ideal. I read the school effectiveness literature and you see where you *can* be at. And then you see the reality: conflict resolution, conflict with parents or staff . . . or a child in an area of discipline. . . . And, if anything upsets me, it's that. . . . That's what's most frustrating: striving to have the best school possible and there's stumbling blocks.

Job Satisfaction and Effectiveness of Principals

Research Question 22 concerned the matter of a relationship between principals' job satisfaction and effectiveness. As with the previous analysis, this matter was examined by treating each global variable as the dependent variable in statistical analysis.

Regression analysis using the array of principalship effectiveness items disclosed only two significant predictors of overall job satisfaction (Table 8.3). The effectiveness of principals in increasing the job satisfaction of staff bore a moderate direct association with principals' global feelings of satisfaction (r = .38), and the status of that variable as the best predictor took into account similar patterns of association by other variables (contribution to variance 14.2%). The second predictor, coping with overloads of work, added 5.7% of the variance and, on an individual basis, this variable was also linked to some degree with overall satisfaction (r = .36). At the same time, the total contribution of the significant predictors (19.9%) was small, suggesting that, beyond the two variables mentioned here, no consistent performance-satisfaction relationship existed.

Table 8.3

Principalship Effectiveness Criteria as Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals
(n = 107)

Predictor of Overall Job Satisfaction of Principals	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff	14.2	14.2	.38
2. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	19.9	5.7	.36

Correlation of overall job satisfaction with individual effectiveness items revealed little more to support a conclusion that job satisfaction was linked with principals' perceptions of their effectiveness. Generally weak coefficients, ranging from .06 to .36, were obtained for all but two items. On the other hand, the overall job satisfaction of principals did vary systematically with their perceptions of personal effectiveness in evaluating staff members (r = .40), and the pairwise procedure resulted in a coefficient of .40 with the first predictor reported above.

As a further check, the three best job satisfaction predictors and two strongest correlates (reported in Chapter 5) were investigated in connection with the range of principalship effectiveness dimensions. Predictor 1 bore almost no relationship with the overall effectiveness of principals (r = .19) or with most effectiveness variables. Predictor 2, the principal's social position in the community, was only slightly more closely linked with the overall effectiveness variable (r = .27), and the one item with which it displayed a substantial relationship was that of communicating with community groups (r = .40). The job facets that were the third and fourth best predictors of overall satisfaction exhibited remarkably low coefficients of correlation with all principalship effectiveness variables, and coefficients with the overall effectiveness of principals were .16 and .21.

One of the two other facets that emerged as central to job satisfaction, sense of accomplishment, had a moderate association with the principal's overall effectiveness (r = .34) and stronger links with three effectiveness items: increasing the job satisfaction of staff (r = .46), fostering high morale among staff and students (r = .46) and providing feedback to staff (r = .40). The other facet, the competence of teachers in handling professional duties outside their classrooms, was not so clearly related to the overall effectiveness of principals (r = .27) but was linked with four effectiveness items: fostering high morale among staff and students (r = .49), fostering the professional growth of staff (r = .43), increasing the job satisfaction of staff (r = .43) and obtaining qualified staff (r = .43).

The major conclusion to be drawn from this collection of results is that principals' overall job satisfaction and its central elements seemed to bear only weak relationships with self-appraisals of their effectiveness. By way of exception to this generalization, the effectiveness of a principal in increasing the job satisfaction of staff and in evaluating staff members had limited, direct associations with overall feelings of satisfaction. Performance in these domains and in areas such as fostering high morale among staff and students also may have had some indirect impact.

Converse analysis of satisfaction and principalship effectiveness data tended to support the foregoing general finding. Regression of overall effectiveness of principals with job satisfaction items resulted in only three predictors that contributed to any significant extent to the variance in the overall variable (Table 8.4). The satisfaction experienced from successful completion of projects and tasks emerged as the best predictor, although its independent association with the effectiveness of principals was of only moderate strength (r = .38). The additional contributions by the remaining predictors (5.7% and 3.8%) were somewhat smaller, and both variables exhibited low direct correlations with the overall effectiveness variable (r = .28 and .22).

Table 8.4

Job Satisfaction Items as Predictors of Overall Effectiveness of Principals
(n = 90)

Predictor of Overall Effectiveness of Principals	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Successful completion of projects and tasks	14.5	14.5	.38
2. The principal's relationships with students	20.2	5.7	.28
3. The principal's involvement in budget preparation	24.0	3.8	.22

Overall effectiveness of principals also bore very weak individual statistical relationships with their satisfaction on all of the remaining 38 job facets. Pairwise deletion of responses resulted in predictor 1 having a correlation coefficient of .40, but other relationships ranged from -.07 to .34; most approached zero correlation.

To detect any other links, the four best predictors and two other strongest correlates of overall effectiveness of principals were correlated with each of the satisfaction variables. The criterion that had emerged as the best predictor of overall effectiveness, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, produced a coefficient with overall job satisfaction of only .34; and only one other satisfaction variable, successful completion of projects and tasks, correlated to a substantial degree with principals' overall effectiveness (r = .46). Predictor 2 bore no relationship of any consequence either with overall job satisfaction (r = .29) or with any individual facet. Predictor 3, communicating with staff, displayed a coefficient of .25 with the overall variable but had stronger coefficients with two other variables: social relationships with teachers (r = .42) and successful completion of projects and tasks (r = .41). The fourth predictor, allocating tasks appropriately among staff, was associated with overall satisfaction of principals to only a limited extent (r = .30), but it varied more in conjunction with the satisfaction and morale of students (r = .42).

One of the two further correlates investigated was likewise of little consequence for linking the effectiveness of principals with satisfaction in specific aspects of their work: exercising instructional leadership had a coefficient of only .25 with overall job satisfaction and the one correlation of substance was with the help the principal gives teachers and students (r = .47)--a logical but isolated relationship. The second correlate that was examined, promoting high expectations of staff, also had little connection with overall job satisfaction of principals (r = .28), but it was closely tied to five satisfaction variables: working relationships with teachers (r = .54); social relationships with teachers (r = .52); the competence of teachers in handling duties external to their classrooms (r = .52); the principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator (r = .44); and the satisfaction and morale of staff (r = .41).

As with the earlier analysis of job satisfaction and principalship effectiveness variables, these findings afforded only scant evidence of any association between principals' satisfaction and performance as school administrators. Based on the outcomes of analysis presented in this section, any connection appeared to be confined to specific aspects of the job that related primarily to staff and to fulfilment of tasks--matters that exhibited little in common with overall appraisals of effectiveness.

One related issue, recorded in Chapter 2, is the claim by writers such as Lawler and Porter (1976) that intrinsic rewards (such as sense of accomplishment and feelings of growth) and, to a lesser extent, extrinsic rewards (such as pay, promotions, status and security) are intervening variables in the performance-satisfaction relationship for organization members. To test this assertion in connection with elementary school principals, the overall effectiveness of principals in this study was analyzed for correlation with principals' satisfaction levels on four extrinsic reward facets: (a) the principal's salary; (b) fringe benefits under the contract; (c) the authority associated with the principal's position; and (d) the principal's social position in the community. Coefficients of correlation for the four variables were -.04, .07, .16 and .27. An equivalent analysis was performed with satisfaction responses about four intrinsic reward variables, and the following results were obtained: (a) achievement of the principal's own professional objectives, $r = .21$; (b) sense of accomplishment as an administrator, $r = .34$; (c) recognition by others of the principal's work, $r = .19$; and (d) successful completion of projects and tasks, $r = .40$.

The extrinsic rewards examined here had little explanatory power in linking leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction responses of the principals in this study. Likewise, satisfaction with two of the intrinsic rewards lacked clear associations with principals' ratings of their overall effectiveness. The two related but ill-defined variables of "sense of accomplishment" and "successful completion of projects and tasks" emerged as more substantial mediators between principals' self-perceptions of effectiveness and ratings of job facet satisfaction. At the same time, these were neither the only nor the two leading facets in this regard. Moreover, as all of the findings reported in this section indicate, the satisfaction-performance relationship for principals in this study--to the extent that one could be discerned--was considerably less direct and pervasive than Lawler and Porter's framework would suggest.

Interview questioning elicited some useful information about principals' satisfaction and effectiveness. A common perception among the interviewees was that these are associated matters. Two principals saw this relationship as proceeding from satisfaction to personal effectiveness. Indeed, one took an extreme position: "I don't think I *could* be effective if I was not enjoying what I was doing." A third principal, however, disagreed; he asserted that job satisfaction tends to lead to complacency and, as a consequence, to reduced effectiveness: "If you feel that everything's fine, then you don't examine what you're doing and [don't] keep saying, 'Gee, that was good, but what else can we do'?"

According to three respondents, the direction of such an association should be viewed in reverse. The comment of one person is representative:

> If you didn't feel you were being at least some[what] effective, I don't think you *could* be too satisfied. And, if things seem to be going well and you're getting results and you seem to have the right atmosphere, you'd get your satisfaction from that.

At the same time, another of these principals added a qualification that, further to this association, "there are some things that give me personal satisfaction but don't necessarily have to be tied to the effectiveness as a school principal."

For three other respondents, the relationship is interactive--a self-perpetuating or "self-reinforcing" cycle. One principal described the process succinctly:

> Principals are only human. If you feel that you're not appreciated, then you're not going to put in the effort and you won't be appreciated. . . . If your feedback is positive, then you're going to do more and more and more, and that's going to get you more positive feedback and you'll try harder again.

In concurring, another principal likewise noted that "feeling satisfied regenerates your energy. . . . It's self-reinforcing. It almost becomes a conditioned behaviour then. So I willingly put that energy into it again, because it has a payoff for me."

School Effectiveness and the Effectiveness of Principals

Further to the systematic relationship between the overall effectiveness of schools and of principals, regression and correlation analyses were conducted in an effort to identify the basis of that association (Research Question 23). With overall effectiveness of schools as the dependent variable, regression analysis disclosed four aspects of the principal's effectiveness that collectively made a significant contribution (44.8%) to the variance in the global variable (Table 8.5).

Table 8.5

Principalship Effectiveness Criteria as Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness
(n = 105)

Predictor of Overall School Effectiveness	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Promoting the achievement of school goals	27.2	27.2	.52
2. Coordinating the activities of staff	37.2	10.0	.49
3. Enlisting the support of parents	42.1	4.9	.52
4. Communicating with students	44.8	1.7	.45

The best predictor, the principal's effectiveness in promoting the achievement of school goals, was associated with 27.2% of the variance in the overall effectiveness of schools; a direct link was also evident in their high degree of covariation (r = .52). The second predictor, coordinating the actitivies of staff, also displayed a strong independent relationship with overall effectiveness of schools (r = .49) as well as adding a further 10.0% to the variance. Predictor 3, enlisting the support of parents, which displayed an especially close connection with the overall variable (r = .52), added a smaller increment (4.9%) in the regression analysis; and predictor 4, communicating with students made a significant but smaller contribution again (1.7%).

The stepwise regression procedure also masked the important individual correlations of six other variables, which concerned the effectiveness of principals in the following areas:

1. Identifying community expectations (r = .50);
2. Fostering high morale among staff and students (r = .42);
3. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions (r = .41);
4. Communicating with community groups (r = .41);
5. Promoting high expectations among staff (r = .40); and
6. Exercising instructional leadership (r = .40).

In addition, all of the remaining principalship effectiveness variables displayed some measure of association with overall effectiveness of schools; the lowest coefficient of correlation among the 29 variables was .22.

While the composite index, overall effectiveness of principals, remained the strongest correlate of the overall effectiveness of schools (r = .65), these predictors and other systematically related variables provided evidence of the expansive basis of that connection. It appeared from the foregoing analyses that the performance of principals had much in common with the overall effectiveness of the elementary schools concerned. Furthermore, many aspects of the principal's work emerged as vitally related to--perhaps instrumental in--the effectiveness of those schools.

Correlation of the best school effectiveness predictors and correlates with this range of principalship effectiveness variables added support this general finding. The first school effectiveness predictor of overall organizational effectiveness exhibited clear relationships with the overall effectiveness of principals (r = .41) and effectiveness ratings on 11 items representing a wide range of work dimensions for the principal. Predictor 2 was likewise linked with the global measure (r = .42) and ten other items. Predictor 3, maintaining high expectations of staff, bore an even stronger relationship with overall effectiveness of schools (r = .49) and had coefficients in excess of .40 with 16 of the 29 principalship effectiveness variables of concern in this study. Consistent with its relatively low item correlation with overall effectiveness of schools, the fourth predictor exhibited a weaker relationship with the overall effectiveness of principals (r = .35), although it also displayed substantial correlations with six aspects of the principal's performance. The results with other strong correlates of overall school effectiveness were of the same order and not detailed here.

Taken collectively, these findings supported the finding that the two effectiveness constructs examined in this study are closely related. They also indicated that, further to an overall link, many crucial dimensions of the principal's work are systematically associated with the effectiveness of their schools.

To explore this effectiveness connection fully, the overall principalship effectiveness variable and its central elements were also analyzed in conjunction with each item in the array of school effectiveness variables. Stepwise regression analysis resulted in identification of the predictors reported in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6

School Effectiveness Criteria as Predictors of Overall Effectiveness of Principals
(n = 94)

Predictor of Overall Effectiveness of Principals	% of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
1. Maintaining high expectations of staff	27.1	27.1	.52
2. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	31.5	4.4	.45
3. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	35.2	3.7	.05
4. Responding to changing community expectations	39.4	4.2	.32
5. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	42.3	2.9	.40

In total, these five predictors contributed 42.3% of the variance in the dependent variable, thereby attesting to the centrality of these dimensions of school effectiveness to principals' perceptions of their own overall effectiveness as leaders. Moreover, three of the predictors were independently related to overall effectiveness of principals--most notably predictor 1, maintaining high expectations of staff (r = .52). The school's effectiveness in maximizing the satisfaction of parents (r = .45) and keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology (r = .40) also emerged as strong correlates of the principal's overall effectiveness. Principals' overall effectiveness appeared to have almost nothing in common with the school's achievement in mathematics--a finding that is not surprising in view of the instructional nature of that dimension--but its incorporation of associations attributable to other unspecified variables allowed it to make some contribution to the variance in principals' overall effectiveness.

Arising out of Pearson correlation analysis of individual variables, the overall effectiveness of principals also exhibited a correlation coefficient exceeding .40 with one additional school effectiveness variable. The variable concerned was the organization's effectiveness in maintaining an appropriate school climate (r = .42).

On the other hand, beyond these dimensions there seemed to be few domains of schools' work which bore clear, systematic relationships with the overall performance of principals. Such a finding contrasted sharply with the extensive array of interrelationships between the overall effectiveness of schools and specific dimensions of the principal's effectiveness.

However, examination of the best predictors and correlates of principals' effectiveness disclosed more extensive connections. The best predictor of the effectiveness of principals, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, correlated substantially with overall school effectiveness (r = .41) and four individual school effectiveness variables. Predictor 2 had even more and closer relationships with the overall variable (r = .50) and nine other variables. Predictors 3 and 4 were each associated to only a moderate extent with overall effectiveness of schools (r = .38 and .34), but each had coefficients beyond .40 with five criterion variables. One of the other strong correlates of principals' overall effectiveness, exercising instructional leadership, was more directly connected with the overall effectiveness of schools (r = .40) and it correlated markedly with 11 school effectiveness variables. The other central aspect of principalship effectiveness, promoting high expectations among staff, was also related to the global school effectiveness variable (r = .40), and it had coefficients of .40 or more with 18 of the 38 other items. In each of these instances, specific items have not been reported for, collectively, they encompassed the array of school effectiveness criteria and none was unduly overrepresented in the item correlations.

In summary, these interrelationships supported the findings from the initial analysis of effectiveness variables. The principal's effectiveness was fundamentally and expansively linked to the effectiveness of the elementary schools in the study. With regard to specific dimensions, the overall effectiveness of principals seemed to be directly related to the performance of schools in the following domains: maintaining high expectations of staff, maximizing the satisfaction of parents, keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology, and maintaining an appropriate school climate. Other links with principals' effectiveness were less direct; their involvement arose out of the principal's effectiveness in exercising instructional leadership and in promoting high expectations among members of staff rather than being associated with the leader's effectiveness in general.

Interview responses supported a clear and logical causal connection between the two effectiveness constructs. All ten principals were adamant that the effectiveness of the school principal contributes substantially to the effectiveness of an elementary school. A common perception was that a school's success is "largely" attributable to the quality of the principal's work. One respondent likened the relationship to a queen bee and a beehive: "The hive can function without it [the queen], but there's that important ingredient there. And I think the principal is an important ingredient of the school's effectiveness." To another,

> the effectiveness of the school and the effectiveness of the principal [are] very much one and the same. If you are effective as a principal, then it would show up in your school being very effective, because you must be putting the right things in place. If you have one, you have the other.

A principal in a rural location emphasized that the effectiveness of the principal is "especially critical in a rural school, where the principal is much more accessible to the parents. . . . [in those locations,] the parent perception of the school's effectiveness is much more dependent on the principal himself."

On the other hand, one respondent regarded himself as only "a part of it [school effectiveness]," and two others contended that schools can still be effective if they find suitable substitute leaders. As one explained, "You could perhaps have an effective school without an effective leader if you had a strong informal leadership structure in place, whereby the principal who is ineffective could be shut out of the whole operation." The other agreed, merely remarking that "You can't have one [an effective school] without the other [an effective principal] unless you've got somebody else doing it [administering the school]." At the same time, both considered that effective leadership, preferably by the school principal, is a substantial determinant of a school's effectiveness.

Further to these interview responses, other findings from this study also reinforced the view that the principal's effectiveness is critical for effective performance of the school. One outcome reported in Chapter 6 was that school effectiveness varied systematically in accordance with personal attributes of principals; hence, principals may reasonably be admitted as having had some bearing on organizational effectiveness in the schools concerned. In the questionnaire responses, principals also advanced a number of deficiencies of principals as major constraints upon the effectiveness of elementary schools; and teachers within Edmonton shared that view. Principals across Alberta and teachers in Edmonton also concurred in regarding "displaying leadership by the principal" as one of the most crucial criteria for judging the effectiveness of a school.

Furthermore, in response to a request to rate the importance of effective principalship for overall effectiveness of a school, eight area superintendents in Edmonton rated this matter at the "extremely important" level of the four-point scale provided; the other entered a response of "moderately important."

Summary

Arising out of correlations of the three global variables in this study, the effectiveness of schools was found to be systematically related to the effectiveness of principals but not to the job satisfaction of principals. Principals' overall effectiveness and overall job satisfaction responses also exhibited only weak associations.

Closer examination of overall job satisfaction and the range of school effectiveness variables, however, revealed a collection of variables--most notably the school's effectiveness in displaying staff cooperation and cohesion--that linked satisfaction with some aspects of organizational effectiveness. Conversely, comparison of the array of job satisfaction dimensions with overall effectiveness of schools also revealed that principals' relationships with students and successful completion of tasks may associate satisfaction and effectiveness to some degree.

In considering the satisfaction and effectiveness of principals, variables such as the principal's effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of staff and the principal's satisfaction with certain staff-oriented matters provided a basis for asserting the presence of some association. Even so, these findings afforded little assurance of anything but a weak relationship between the satisfaction and effectiveness of elementary school principals. Analysis regarding the importance of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards as mediators of the satisfaction-performance relationship also revealed those variables to be of little further assistance in establishing a connection.

Building upon the strong relationship between the two overall effectiveness variables, a range of principalship and school effectiveness criteria emerged as important dimensions of the relationship, providing evidence of the pervasive basis of the effectiveness connection and locating the principal at the centre of school effectiveness.

Interview findings tended to support the presence of relationships among all three constructs of concern in this study. The direction of influence between principals' job satisfaction and school effectiveness was a matter of some disagreement, as was the cause of a connection between the effectiveness and satisfaction of principals. On the other hand, the effectiveness of principals was judged to be a vital contributor to organizational effectiveness in schools.

CHAPTER 9

MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES ON EFFECTIVENESS

The findings about effectiveness reported in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 relied entirely upon the perceptions of principals. In order to assess those findings and examine consistencies and inconsistencies in the perspectives of educational constituencies about effectiveness, perceptions were also obtained from Edmonton teachers and area superintendents--and, indirectly, from students and parents--as a basis for a geographically focussed comparison with the responses of principals.

Although the need for this comparison was defended earlier, its importance was reinforced by unsolicited comments from three principals. In the course of rating his effectiveness in coping with uncertainty and conflict, coping with emergencies and work overloads, exercising exemplary behaviour at school and increasing the job satisfaction of staff, one principal remarked, "Obviously I would like to circle a '6' here but the staff should answer these questions." A second likewise noted on his questionnaire that "it would be interesting to see results from a teacher's perspective on some of the above." Another principal supported these comments during an interview by advocating appraisal of principals' effectiveness on the following basis: "You have input from the parents, from the teachers, from the children and, of course . . . evaluation of principals by central office staff."

The first and most comprehensive aspect of this sub-study was conducted in the 34 schools in the provincial sample that fell within the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Separate School Districts. Responses about effectiveness by the Edmonton principals were generally consistent with those of the larger sample from which they came. Responses by teachers and the nine area superintendents associated with these schools, however, provided a basis for comparing perceptions about effectiveness of schools and principals. A second, still more focussed aspect of this inquiry involved comparison of the results obtained from Edmonton Public School District principals, teachers and area superintendents with similar findings from that jurisdiction's own survey of parents and students in the same schools during the same year. These two extensions of the inquiry added new insights into the levels, domains and nature of effectiveness in elementary schools in one large urban location. Together, they provided information concerning the following research questions:

24. To what extent are principals' perceptions of school effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers, area superintendents, students and parents?

25. To what extent are principals' perceptions of the importance of various criteria for assessing school effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers and area superintendents?

26. To what extent are principals' perceptions of the constraints on school effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers and area superintendents?

27. To what extent are principals' perceptions of their effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of teachers, area superintendents, students and parents?

28. To what extent are principals' perceptions of the importance of various criteria for assessing principals' effectiveness consistent with the perceptions of area superintendents?

The findings derived from comparison of responses by principals, teachers and area superintendents in the two school districts dealt with all five research questions restated above; they are presented first. Comparisons with data obtained from students and parents related only to Research Questions 24 and 27; they are detailed in the second section of this chapter.

Perceptions of Principals, Teachers and Area Superintendents in Edmonton

Comparable responses about the effectiveness of schools and principals were sought from the principals, teachers and area superintendents who were involved with the 34 schools in Edmonton. Perceptions were obtained in connection with (a) the current effectiveness of schools, (b) the importance of various criteria for assessing the effectiveness of schools, (c) constraints on school effectiveness, (d) the effectiveness of principals and (e) the importance of criteria for judging the effectiveness of elementary school principals. Comparisons of perspectives on these four matters are dealt with in turn.

Effectiveness of Schools

Research Question 24 called for collection and comparison of data about school effectiveness from a range of educational constituencies. The questionnaire for Alberta principals served as a guide for this inquiry. While principals and teachers in Edmonton were invited to respond about equivalent matters, area superintendents rated effectiveness on a smaller array of dimensions about which they were expected to be familiar.

Percentage frequency distributions of the responses of Edmonton principals appear in Table 9.1. Although isolated discrepancies were evident, these responses were generally consistent with the perceptions obtained from principals throughout the province. Ratings of overall school effectiveness were unchanged, and on no criterion did the mean level of effectiveness differ by more than 0.2 on the six-point scale. The only difference worth noting was the relatively greater consensus among Edmonton principals that their schools were effective in most dimensions.

Area superintendents' responses are summarized in Table 9.2. These nine respondents rated the schools for which they were responsible, and ratings for each school were treated as distinct sets of responses. The mean level of overall effectiveness for the Edmonton schools was 4.7 on the six-point scale. Highest ratings on individual items were for setting school goals (5.0), maintaining high expectations of staff (5.0), maintaining high expectations of students (4.9), acknowledging the achievements of staff and students (4.9) and demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter (4.9).

Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community attracted the lowest mean rating (4.4), although this still exceeded the scale mean of 3.5. Most noteworthy was the relatively wide dispersion in the area superintendents' responses: on the last-mentioned criterion, 26% of the schools were judged to be ineffective to some degree, and 21% were regarded as ineffective in responding to changing community expectations. Responses on all criteria included some low ratings of individual schools. In particular, three schools were considered to be extremely ineffective in taking advantage of staffing changes.

The comparisons of mean ratings by principals, teachers and area superintendents are recorded in Table 9.3. Since they have not already been mentioned, the teachers' responses deserve initial comment. Overall, teachers rated their schools as "moderately effective," with the most effective dimensions being maximizing communication with the community (5.2), using appropriate teaching methods (5.1), maximizing achievement in reading and writing (5.1), emphasizing academic subjects (5.1), setting school goals (5.1), maximizing achievement in mathematics (5.1), encouraging academic success (5.1) and maximizing the satisfaction of parents (5.1). Lowest mean ratings were assigned to effectiveness on the criteria of discussing, planning and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively (4.3), maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community (4.3), maximizing the development of creativity (4.5), maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members (4.6) and providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities (4.6). Again, mean effectiveness levels were rated above the scale mean on every criterion. To provide some indication of the dispersion in these responses, the school mean ratings of overall effectiveness reflected a standard deviation of 0.49, although individual response data from the 262 teachers exhibited a much greater spread (0.82). This compared with standard deviations of 0.46 for principals and a much larger 1.16 for the 33 schools rated by area superintendents.

With regard to the inter-constituency comparisons, inspection of Table 9.3 reveals certain apparent anomalies which require explanation. By way of example, responses by teachers and area superintendents on item 29, using appropriate teaching methods, were significantly different even at the .01 level, yet seemingly equivalent differences between principals and area superintendents did not quite attain statistical significance ($p = .08$). Similarly, on items 33 and 34, area superintendents' mean ratings differed from those of principals by a greater margin than did those of teachers, yet they were less significantly different from the principals' responses. These irregularities arose out of three aspects of the analysis and reporting procedures used: the effect of pairwise deletion on each n; the rounding of means; and the influence of the spread of responses on the outcome of this statistical procedure.

Differences in the perceptions expressed by the three constituencies were, in many cases, statistically significant. A general pattern was for highest school effectiveness ratings to be awarded by principals, particularly on the criteria for which principals may be held responsible; principals' mean ratings were highest on 30 of the 39 items (including overall effectiveness) and, in a further four instances, their means were of the same order as those of teachers. Teachers likewise tended to view school effectiveness relatively more favourably on certain matters relating primarily to their own work: communicating school goals to students, emphasizing academic subjects, keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology, and demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter. Teachers also shared principals' comparatively high regard for effectiveness in maximizing student satisfaction and morale, and using appropriate teaching methods. Area superintendents were, with few exceptions, least supportive in their responses about school effectiveness: on 18 of the 21 items (including overall effectiveness), area superintendents' mean ratings were lowest or equal lowest of the three groups. Only on maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community--a sector with which they may be most often associated--was their general assessment the most positive of the constituencies, and their ratings exceeded those of teachers in respect of maximizing the job satisfaction of staff and maintaining high expectations of staff, and surpassed those of principals on communicating school goals to students.

The most notable differences in specific items were the principals' slightly stronger effectiveness ratings on four variables that the province-wide study had disclosed to be aspects of greatest effectiveness. Edmonton principals' perceptions of the effectiveness of their schools in maintaining an appropriate school climate were markedly different from those of teachers and area superintendents; differences among the three groups were all statistically significant. Principals also rated their schools significantly higher than did teachers and area superintendents in displaying staff cooperation and cohesion and significantly higher than did teachers in maintaining low turnover of staff . Maximizing achievement in mathematics, reading and writing attracted similar mean ratings from principals and teachers, but area superintendents' responses on the more general question of academic achievement were significantly lower.

Area superintendents' judgements about the schools for which they were responsible were also significantly less favourable in other aspects of school life: maximizing student satisfaction and morale, using appropriate teaching methods, taking advantage of staffing changes, and responding to changing community expectations. On the latter two criteria, teachers tended to share the area superintendents' perceptions, and their responses departed from those of the principals to a highly significant degree. Other areas that exhibited significant differences of opinion by principals and teachers (and where area superintendents were rarely invited to comment) included maximizing the development of creativity, enforcing behavioural rules among students, maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members, maximizing staff morale, discussing, planning and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively, and constructively evaluating the work of teachers. In every instance mentioned above, the statistically significant differences arose from singularly high ratings by principals and, where applicable, from low ratings by area superintendents. In no area did area superintendents rate effectiveness significantly higher than did either of the other two groups, and teachers ratings did not exceed those of principals by a significant amount on any of the effectiveness criteria. Such consistent directional strength of differences lent further support to the earlier conclusion that principals viewed school effectiveness more favourably than did teachers, with area superintendents being the least positive of the three constituencies.

Because principals and teachers--although not area superintendents--rated their schools on the same set of criteria, the rankings of effectiveness means on the specified criteria could be compared. This analysis further highlighted the extent and nature of perceptual differences between these educational constituencies. (To make the two groups of responses comparable, the principalship effectiveness variable, displaying leadership by the principal, was omitted from the teachers' rankings.)

As the data in Table 9.4 reveal, the principals' highest ratings of school effectiveness departed noticeably from those assigned by the teachers. While principals tended to regard their schools as relatively effective in displaying staff cooperation and cohesion, maximizing the morale of the staff, maintaining low turnover of staff, enforcing rules among students, and taking advantage of staffing changes--all collective attributes and responsibilities of staff--these were well down the list of rankings for the teachers themselves. Also in contrast with principals' perceptions, teachers recorded relatively high levels of effectiveness in using appropriate teaching methods, emphasizing academic subjects, maximizing achievement in mathematics, encouraging academic success, and demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter--domains which all focussed on the teachers' individual efforts, capabilities and interaction with students. Although their responses could not be directly compared in this way, area superintendents ranked effectiveness highest in other areas again--maintaining high expectations of staff (ranked first; 5.030), setting school goals (4.970), acknowledging achievements of staff and students (4.939), demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter (4.933) and maintaining high expectations of students (4.879)--which tended to include the aspects of a school's work that are visible to outside observers.

Importance of School Effectiveness Criteria

In connection with Research Question 25, principals, teachers and area superintendents were also requested to express their perceptions about the importance of various criteria for judging the effectiveness of elementary schools. As with the principals, teachers assigned importance ratings to predetermined criteria; this permitted direct comparison of findings. So as not to impose an excessive burden on area superintendents, they were invited to suggest the three most important criteria; those findings could only be compared according to the frequency with which criteria were mentioned by the nine area superintendents.

Edmonton principals' perceptions of the importance of 39 criteria appear in Table 9.5. They were generally in accordance with those of the entire sample of principals. Area superintendents, however, commended a somewhat different array of important criteria for judging school effectiveness (Table 9.6). In response to a request to advance three critical criteria in order of importance, greatest support was given to "maximizing student achievement." The most comprehensive definition of this criterion referred to "academic, social, emotional growth": the most limited was academic attainment. Second priority was given to maintaining an appropriate school climate, the criterion rated most highly by principals. Such a climate was described by one respondent as a "secure" environment for learning, and by another as a "happy and pleasant" atmosphere for students and staff. Other criteria that were proposed--some additional to those specified in the research instruments--are listed in the table; no explanation was provided for any concept, and each was mentioned infrequently.

The means of importance ratings by teachers (based on means for each school) and comparisons of the three groups of respondents are presented in Table 9.7. (The few additional criteria proposed by area superintendents were not rated for importance by other constituencies, so they are not repeated in this table.) With regard to the teachers' responses alone, the most important criteria for judging school effectiveness were maintaining an appropriate school climate, maintaining high expectations of students, maximizing achievement in reading and writing, maximizing the morale of the staff as a group, displaying leadership by the principal, maximizing student satisfaction and morale, enforcing behavioural rules among students, acknowledging the achievements of staff and students, and maximizing the development of important social skills (all 3.8 on

Table 9.6

Criteria Identified by Edmonton Area Superintendents as
Being Important for Judging School Effectiveness
(n=9)

	Order of Importance			Total Mentions[1]	
Criterion	Third	Second	First	f	%f
1. Maximizing student achievement		1	6	7	78
2. Maintaining an appropriate school climate		3		3	33
3. Developing students' self-concept/esteem	1		1	2	22
4. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents		1	1	2	22
5. Obtaining support from parents and the community	2			2	22
6. Using appropriate teaching methods	1		1	2	22
7. Maximizing the satisfaction of students	2			2	22
8. Maximizing the job satisfaction of staff		1		1	11
9. Fulfilling the needs of students		1		1	11
10. Developing students' talents		1		1	11
11. Having highly capable teachers	1			1	11
12. Developing students' independence and cooperation	1			1	11

1. Each area superintendent was asked to suggest three criteria, in order of importance.

the four-point scale). On the other hand, relatively low mean ratings were assigned to maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community (2.8), maintaining low turnover of staff (3.0), discussing, planning and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively (3.1) and frequently evaluating students according to defined standards (3.1)--although all items were still beyond the 2.5 scale mean.

The comparison of importance ratings by principals, teachers and area superintendents needs to viewed in perspective. Despite differences, the two groups which responded about all criteria in the instruments judged every criterion as being of some consequence for assessing the effectiveness of an elementary school. Nevertheless, the discussion above draws attention to variation in the importance of those criteria, and the table illustrates that the perceptions of the constituencies varied significantly in many respects.

On 31 items, principals' ratings exceeded those by teachers; in 21 instances, differences were statistically significant (15 at the .01 level). Principals' mean ratings were most markedly above those for teachers on the importance of gauging effectiveness through taking advantage of staffing changes, providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities, maintaining high expectations of staff, and constructively evaluating the work of teachers. Teachers placed relatively greater emphasis on only three criteria: enforcing behavioural rules among students, keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology, and demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter; and none of these differences was statistically significant.

Area superintendents' responses provided an additional perspective: their highest priorities generally matched principals' and teachers' judgements, although the area superintendents placed greater priority on student attainment. Nevertheless, the alternative technique used to obtain their perceptions precluded direct comparison.

With regard to the principals' and teachers' responses about the importance of criteria, supporting as well as contrasting perspectives were apparent. Table 9.8

displays the ten highest ranked criteria for each of these groups, based on response means.

Although principals, teachers and area superintendents rated current effectiveness highest in different domains, the figures in this table indicate some measure of consistency in principals' and teachers' views of the most important criteria upon which such judgements should be based. Both groups of respondents regarded maintaining an appropriate school climate and maintaining high expectations of students as the two leading criteria. Other matters such as use of appropriate teaching methods, the leadership by the principal, acknowledgement of achievements, and maximization of staff job satisfaction were also in general accord. On the other hand, high rankings of other criteria were dissimilar; of particular note was maintaining high expectations of staff, a criterion which focusses directly upon the work of teachers. Teachers also placed greater emphasis on enforcing behavioural rules among students--a criterion against which principals may well be judged.

Chapter 6 included reference to additional criteria advanced by principals for judging school effectiveness; those criteria suggested by Edmonton principals did not depart substantially from those of respondents elsewhere in the province. The Edmonton teachers in this study were also given opportunity to recommend school effectiveness criteria that might be useful for assessing the effectiveness of elementary schools. As with the principals, only a small proportion of the teachers added new criteria; and, in every instance, these variables were rated as very important as well as effective dimensions in the respondents' own schools. The 47 responses of this kind, which are presented below, spanned the issues of parental and community involvement, positive attitudes of teachers, financial and personnel resources, constructive behaviours of principals, work and time commitments of teachers, assignment of staff and program design, and attitudes of students.

Contact with parents and the community. Eleven teachers (the largest number

Table 9.8

Comparison of Edmonton Principals' and Teachers' Ratings of the Ten Most Important Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Principals		Teachers	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
1. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	4.000	1	3.829	1
2. Maintaining high expectations of students	3.967	2	3.807	2
3. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	3.933	3.3	3.781	6
4. Using appropriate teaching methods	3.933	3.3	3.737	10
5. Maintaining high expectations of staff	3.933	3.3	3.544	23
6. Displaying leadership by the principal	3.931	6	3.784	5
7. Setting school goals	3.900	7.2	3.709	12
8. Encouraging academic success	3.900	7.2	3.666	14
9. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	3.900	7.2	3.759	8
10. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	3.900	7.2	3.695	3.7
11. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	3.900	7.2	3.647	15
12. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	3.867	12	3.791	3
13. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	3.833	13.3	3.786	4
14. Enforcing behavioural rules among students	3.633	29	3.767	7
15. Maximizing development of important social skills	3.833	13.3	3.754	9

Note: Both sets of rankings are based on ratings on 39 items.

supporting any additional criterion) proposed the related matters of parental and community participation as an aspect to consider in measuring school effectiveness. Most referred to general contact through "close association with the community," "involvement of community members in schools" and "maintaining communication with *parents* in particular," although one advocated a criterion of "involvement of parents in class" and another commended the use of "parent volunteers" as a means of decreasing the excessive workload of teachers.

Teachers from a community school placed particular emphasis on the issue of parental and community contact. One remarked that, "Our school is a community school. . . . We succeed primarily because of staff commitment toward a common goal of community." Another wrote about the benefits of such a commitment to school-community interaction:

> Community schools enhance total educational goals. Use of community businesses and services helps the children to be involved with their neighbourhood. The school becomes a focal point in the community which assists in the safety of physical plant. The school is able to enforce discipline and have effective peer counselling groups.

Another colleague listed two strengths of close associations with the community in that kind of school: "(a) a school wide non-punitive discipline policy with real staff and principal support, (b) Teachers and staff that like kids and work hard to keep up with the latest research. This is *greatly* energized by leadership from the principal."

Attitudes of teachers. Commitment of teachers to their jobs and to education appeared as a second focus of attention among teachers. Seven respondents referred variously to the importance of assessing the "ability of staff," "personalities of staff" and teachers' "recognition of all students who work to the best of their ability" rather than just the high achievers. Two others proposed collegiality of staff--the "sharing of ideas and mutual respect among staff members"--as a related characteristic of effective performance. They also wrote about the presence of a "warm, relaxed, friendly atmosphere" that exudes "trust and warmth among staff."

Resources. The matter of resources encompassed the adequacy of facilities as well as personnel. Eight teachers recorded the importance of a "comfortable and appropriate physical environment," "good quality physical facilities" and "adequate materials/resources for teaching" as well as the "availability of support staff"--most particularly, "personnel to help meet special needs of students." One respondent also remarked on "adequate income and opportunities for advancement" for teachers. No ratings of current effectiveness were assigned on any of these criteria.

Practices of principals. Principals were seen by four teachers to be an important influence on school effectiveness. Appraisals should therefore take into account the "principal's support of staff," the "principal's expression of confidence in staff," the "principal's support and encouragement of professional development for teachers" and "involvement of teachers in P.D.[professional development]," as well as the extent to which the principal encourages "staff participation in decision making."

Time and workloads of teachers. Four teachers added the notion of "provision of adequate preparation time for teachers" as a guide to school effectiveness. Two others noted "realistic class size" as a factor to consider.

School program and allocation of staff. According to one teacher, "flexibility in the school program" is an important aspect of effective performance. Another two mentioned the place of "assignments commensurate with teacher expertise" and allocations of staff that show the school is "capitalizing on the individual capabilities of teachers."

Students. Two teachers only referred to the "ability of students" and "self-concept of the students" as further criteria for investigating school effectiveness. No advice was given in determining how these attributes might be judged.

The area superintendents also recorded additional criteria that they considered to be important aspects of school effectiveness appraisal. Further to reiterating the importance of communicating school goals through a "clearly articulated mission," six other criteria were advanced: "development of a positive self-concept in students," "fulfilment of the needs of individual students," "personality of the principal," "concern for the physical environment" and "development of self-discipline." In each instance, the respondent who commended the criterion rated effectiveness of most schools highly in that domain.

Comparison of the additional criteria contributed by principals, teachers and area superintendents highlighted the expansiveness of all three constituencies' views of school effectiveness, implying a need to incorporate a wide array of dimensions in appraisals of school effectiveness. Such a finding reinforced the results of quantitative analysis which revealed all 38 predetermined criteria as important. No major differences in the constituencies' responses were observed.

Constraints on School Effectiveness

As noted in Chapter 6, principals across Alberta tended to regard a range of factors as serious constraints on school effectiveness. These were summarized under the categories of staff time and workload, financial and other resources, students, parental and community influences, administrators of school systems and the Department of Education, dispositions of teachers, attributes of principals, and characteristics of the educational organizations. Such findings also seemed to be typical of the Edmonton sub-group of principals. Many of the teachers and the nine Edmonton area superintendents likewise commented on matters that inhibit the effectiveness of elementary schools. To permit comparison as well as to record important perceptions about school effectiveness these responses are reported below, commencing with those of the teachers.

Staff workload and time. From the 213 questionnaires returned by teachers, 62 responses concerned the related matters of workloads and time commitments of staff. Sixteen respondents complained about the destructive effect of work and "curriculum overload" upon the performance of classroom teachers. Some commented on "too much emphasis on the curriculum and not enough on the child," others on the time-consuming "intrusion of administrative trivia (paper blizzard)," or "bureaucratic busy work." Others noted the "overload of extras beyond daily teaching" and the burden on time and energy caused by "all those extra activities and expectations (concerts, fund raisers, bulletin board changes, classroom parties/exhibits for parents, Open Houses, conferences, etc.)." Even the demand of data collection for this study attracted comment from two respondents. However, the factor mentioned most frequently (28 responses) was the problem of unreasonably high pupil-teacher ratios. "Excessively large class sizes" were said to be particularly prevalent and disadvantageous to performance in inner-suburban schools. Beyond work obligations, eight respondents wrote more generally about "unavailability of time,"--particularly "insufficient planning and preparation time."

As well as identifying these troublesome features of elementary schools, many teachers explained how they hamper effective work. Large class sizes compound the problem of coping with mixed abilities in classes, leading to discipline problems and work overload for teachers. Damaging consequences of the shortage of time were mentioned: teachers are left with "no time to talk with other teachers" and "not enough time to work with children exhibiting family, emotional or social problems"; it also "contributes to burn-out." Because of curriculum overload, "teachers have to deal in so many areas as experts, eg, science, music." Furthermore, "Board requirements and Departmental exams force teachers to get through material too quickly," and curriculum requirements cause teachers to lose sight of the educational goal.

Budgetary restraint. As with principals, teachers commented (on 33 occasions) about the inhibiting influence of "budget restrictions." Many undesirable outcomes were attributed to the current inadequacy of funds. Some teachers noted the resultant "lack of curriculum materials," "restricted supplies and services," "combined (grade level) classes" and "overloading of teachers with large classloads." Others considered that there is now "not enough money available to organize needed programs," "update resource materials, buy new equipment, [and] hire qualified staff," and insufficent for "the support staff (such as librarians and counsellors) needed to deal with an increasing number of students with both learning and personal problems."

Students. According to eight teachers, effectiveness is hindered by "defiant, rebellious, uninterested students" exhibiting "deviant behavior" in classrooms. Not only is there a necessity for "attention [to be] focused on the 'problem' students," but the effectiveness of schools was said to be deteriorating on account of "an increasing number of children with bad behavior that use up teachers' and administrators' time and energy."

Parents and the community. Many more teachers (26) attributed behavioural difficulties and students' limited achievement to inadequacies associated with parental attitudes and home situations. Some blamed "improper home care of children," "poor nutrition" and socio-economic status of the student body" for behaviour problems and learning deficiencies. One added that "many parents need to be educated in regard to child care and helping the young child develop to full potential. Our school system needs to be looking at a program geared to this group."

"Lack of cooperation with families" and parental break-ups may cause emotional turmoil for many students, which may impinge upon their educational progress. Parents' attitudes about school and education represented another important barrier to effectiveness. Ten respondents alluded to "apathy" and a "lack of parent concern," "cooperation," "involvement" and "support"--"even active undermining of school goals and programs." Some attributed this problem to "low aspirations of parents" (which were associated with low socio-economic background), and others to a critical outlook on schools and education in general. As one teacher observed, parental expectations and support have an impact not only on the attitudes and behaviour of students but also on the activities of teachers:

> If students come to school with a desire to learn and high expectations of parents, this positive attitude will enable teachers to provide creative programs which are not disrupted by deviant behavior. . . . Poor attitudes and behavior often necessitate a more structured presentation.

The need for schools to compete with "TV addiction to valueless programs" may further limit the effectiveness of classroom endeavours.

Teachers shared principals' perceptions in noting that improvement in performance can also be impeded by a disjunction in the priorities of educators and the community and by the latter's endeavour to impose its views on the work of schools. In this regard, one respondent lamented an excessive concern nowadays for satisfying parental and societal demands to the detriment of important educational pursuits; in defence of a return to autonomy for educators, this teacher observed, "teachers are trained to do their jobs. Others usually aren't."

School system and central administrators. Officials of school system and provincial administrations attracted many (26) critical remarks from teachers. The most widely advanced issue (15 responses) was the inhibiting effect of curricular and associated expectations. Some of these teachers were concerned about the heavy burden of an expansive, inflexible and "dull curriculum" which makes it difficult to take into account the wide-ranging abilities of pupils and affords little scope for initiative at the school level. As a result of an administrative expectation that the curriculum will be adhered to rigidly, rather than used as a teaching guideline, teachers face "pressure to complete requirements, so basic concepts are not properly taught." Ten respondents noted particularly the current trend toward "curriculum spread"--an expectation that new areas will be incorporated in an ever-expanding curriculum--which has added significantly to the time pressure on staff. One teacher asserted the causes and effects in this way:

> More and more is added to the curriculum (society demands this) because less and less is being taught by the family in the home, church, and other agencies. Extras detract from education in "core" areas. And regular, rapid changes in curriculum lead to excessive work and uncertainty for teachers.

Moreover, still further demands may be imposed on teachers--"demands that are not directly teaching related." Three respondents also noted that, at the elementary school level, there is an unrealistic expectation and requirement that teachers will be expert in all areas of instruction, even though "expertise in all areas is impossible."

A second point of concern was jurisdictions' inequitable distribution of resources among schools. One teacher in a city location argued that "school based budgeting adversely affects inner-city schools." Another contended that "every school large or small must receive the same consideration and opportunity from downtown." In the opinion of a third, "it seems that schools that are located in a very poor socio-economic locations tend to be overlooked in many situations (allocation of funding)." Another respondent criticized the incongruence between school board spending and teachers' needs.

A variety of other adverse remarks about school effectiveness were directed toward central authorities and jurisdictions. One respondent noted a "lack of expression of appreciation--never mind understanding--for teachers' efforts, especially at the Department and central office levels." Another complained about a "lack of direction from central office"; whereas four more respondents blamed excessive restriction for schools' inability to enforce behavioural rules. Two teachers criticized the current policy of frequently evaluating staff, arguing that this "induces stress in teachers" and exhibits a distrust in their competence when, in fact, "in most instances teachers are doing a tremendous job." In addition, provincial and central office pressure for measurable success was also said to overlook other, more fundamental aspects of effectiveness and to force teachers to do the same: "Alberta Education and the school board expect that students score well on standardized tests. In low socio-economic areas students need food, love and warmth and a safe place before they have any ambition to care about school work."

Finally, the provincial government department and the faculty of education at the local university also came under attack for being out of date: in the words of one teacher,

> Although there is a good climate for education in [city name], I feel it is in spite of, rather than because of, the Dept. of Education of Alberta. Techniques and teacher consciousness are changing so rapidly that I fear the Faculty of Education is also out of touch. They appear to all my teacher colleagues and friends as either irrelevant, bureaucratic or worse, rigid in their training of new teachers.

Attitudes and work of teachers. Thirty-two of the teachers in this study listed teachers as an important constraint on effectiveness in elementary schools. Staff members were perceived to limit effectiveness as a result of a "lack of effort and interest on the part of some teachers (mostly older teachers)," a "lack of motivation (negativism of some staff)" and a lack of commitment and resistance to change on the part of some staff members--attributes that are reflected in teachers' neglect of in-service activities and their failure to enforce behavioural rules at school. Other unproductive attributes of teachers included an "emphasis on meeting children's desires (eg, not 'boring' them) rather than ensuring proper education (what is needed)" and an emphasis on impersonal educational methods ("paper and pencil methodology") at the expense of education that reflects "feeling and understanding." "Lack of allegiance to the principal" and insufficient attention to developing "understanding of the '3Rs' " may also be detrimental to effectiveness.

Attention also focussed on characteristics of staff groups: "low morale," "disharmony," a "lack of cooperation" and "cliques," as well as a "lack of cohesiveness (usually because of personality conflicts and poor leadership from the administrators)" and a lack of "collegiality," "joint effort" and "good spirit" among staff members. Effectiveness may also be adversely affected by a "non-caring atmosphere" among staff: in contrast, an appropriate school climate was said to be "a positive and caring school environment."

Principals. Teachers believed that principals who exhibit inappropriate attitudes and behaviours may impede the work of their schools. Some respondents were critical of principals who are too directive: one teacher noted that "authoritarian and dictatorial principals inhibit creativity of teachers, thus inhibiting the creativity of students"; others merely cited "lack of interest in feedback/ideas from staff" and "dictatorship by the principal." Principals who fail to comprehend the needs and circumstances of teachers also risk reducing the effectiveness of schools. One respondent criticized principals who do not teach and who thus have "no idea what teachers have to deal with on a daily basis (stress, problem students, workload)"; another mentioned "politician/money manager principals . . . [who] do not live in the situations they create for teachers, and have no understanding for people." "Lack of support and encouragement by the principal," "ineffective leadership by the principal," "poor communication between the principal and staff," "lack of trust in teachers" and a propensity for criticism were other characteristics of leaders that were said to be damaging to effectiveness.

Other organizational attributes. A wide variety of other constraints were also mentioned, although no constituency was assigned responsibility for their occurrence. This class of problems included the following: "lack of a school philosophy of education"; "failure to formulate and clarify goals and expectations"; "low profile and lack of identity in the community leading to a lack of community support"; "expectations of staff not communicated"; a "lack of planning in the school"; a "lack of cooperation between the school and parents"; and the lack of a clear code of behavioural expectations of students and, "without it, a confused student population."

Two teachers contended that low turnover of staff can be detrimental to school effectiveness. As a cure, one respondent advocated incentives to encourage teachers to change appointments after five years in the same school; the other recommended incentives for "older, passive, burned-out teachers to retire early."

Some teachers pointed out that small size of schools can work to the detriment of organizational effectiveness. Schools with few pupils and teachers were said to lack resources:

> I believe there are definite advantages to a small school but they are outweighed by the disadvantages. Since budget allocations are on a per pupil basis we are constantly struggling with finances--even for basics. Our record players, tape recorders are in poor condition or irreparable and we have difficulty budgeting for new equipment.

Effectiveness in small schools was alleged to be further affected by the number of programs that can be offered. One respondent also noted that teachers in those schools tend to be encumbered with "disproportionate workloads"; an example given was a colleague's burdensome responsibility for three grade levels--a task that was seen as educationally unrealistic (impossible to fulfil curriculum requirements) and professionally unconscionable ("it is now Nov and she appears 'burned out' already"). Five respondents also commented on the detrimental effects of split classes in small schools. On the other hand, another respondent remarked on the impersonality that attends schools of excessively large size.

The nine area superintendents also had opinions to offer about the factors that hinder effective performance in elementary schools. Most frequently they mentioned staff deficiencies: "absence of real concern for students"; "incompetent teachers"; "inattention to professional growth"; "inattention to student achievement"; and "poor staff morale." Four considered "inadequate leadership by principals" to be a major limitation. Parents and communities were also held responsible for their "lack of parental support" and "poor community relations." Three area superintendents blamed "inadequate resources" and a "lack of funding to fulfill learning needs" for deficiencies in school effectiveness. Two respondents located responsibility at the jurisdiction level for "poor resource allocation" and "reassignment of competent staff to other schools, leading to loss of expertise." "Lack of a school mission" and "lack of clear school goals" were two more constraints within the school context, but blame was not attached.

Comparison of the three constituencies' responses led to a number of important findings. One pervasive pattern of shared opinions was the recognition that all organizational constituencies tend to restrain effectiveness in one way or another. The only apparent exception was students: few principals and teachers held students to be ultimately responsible for behavioural and learning problems, and area superintendents made no mention of students as an inhibiting influence.

While the few area superintendents did not record staff workload and time as a problem, principals and (as might be expected) more than a quarter of all the teachers advanced this category of constraints as important. Most principals confined themselves to general statements about "work overload" and time problems, but teachers commented specifically about unreasonable demands on their time and energy, paying special attention to the issue of large class sizes and referring to a variety of class- and child-centred difficulties.

All constituencies acknowledged resource limitations as a constraint. Teachers concentrated on fiscal restraint and its impact on engagement of needed staff. Principals were also cognizant of budgetary restraint but added the drawbacks of limited expertise and research knowledge.

Parental and community influences were a common source of criticism. Principals as well as teachers expressed frustration with specific behavioural problems in the classroom and commented on their detrimental effect on instructional attainment; both groups, however, also attributed those shortcomings to the variables of home, parents and community. Teachers tended to emphasize the impact of parental neglect of students' welfare, attitudes and behaviour. Principals were similarly troubled by parents' lack of interest in being involved in their children's schools, but principals acknowledged the added imposition of expectations in the wider community.

Provincial authorities and school system administrators were jointly recognized as inhibiting influences on school effectiveness. Some area superintendents acknowledged in general terms the danger of jurisdictions allocating resources and staff inappropriately. The school-based constituencies, however, wrote more expansively and explicitly about this external source of constraint. Principals cited central administrators' insatiable desire for improvement, failure to approve attainment and effort, and bureaucratic restriction on school autonomy; and they highlighted the damaging consequences for instructional effectiveness and staff climate. Teachers communicated additional concerns about the inflexible, tedious and ever-expanding curriculum to which they are expected to adhere. They were also critical of inequitable resource allocations among schools--some alleging that these are influenced by socio-economic privilege--and were particularly incisive about central administrators' disregard for the basic needs of children and self-esteem of teachers.

Personal and professional deficiencies of teachers were the most common concerns among area superintendents. Principals also recorded a variety of individual and collective attributes of staff that hinder performance; lack of competence, enthusiasm, educational commitment and group cohesiveness were paramount. A more surprising finding was that many teachers also shared this perception; and, in addition to undesirable attitudes cited by principals and area superintendents, teachers noted the problems of staff members who seek to amuse rather than educate children or whose teaching is excessively task-oriented.

All three groups admitted that principals can have an important impact on the effectiveness of schools. The principals, however, were not specific about the nature of this constraint, preferring to confine themselves to reports such as "ineffective leadership by the principal." Area superintendents were of little more assistance in identifying the underlying attributes that might be of concern. Teachers, on the other hand, referred to specific personality traits of principals--untrusting, critical, uncommunicative--as well as to the problems arising out of authoritarian and uninformed leadership.

Other organizational constraints were also mentioned by all constituencies. Principals and teachers saw school size as a particular source of concern. Teachers and area superintendents, however, also noted factors such as a failure to plan and a lack of a school philosophy and goals--responsibilities that some observers might most readily associate with principals--as further impediments to school effectiveness.

One summary observation should be added. As with the quantifiable data, principals and teachers--the two constituencies from which most responses were obtained--shared only some concerns. While the overall categories of their responses coincided, the teachers' perspective on major organizational constraints on effectiveness had a different emphasis: not surprisingly, their attention was focussed more closely on classroom- and staff-related problems and less on organization-wide issues.

Effectiveness of Principals

To assist with Research Question 27, data concerning effectiveness of principals were obtained from principals, teachers and area superintendents.

Means and percentage frequencies of the Edmonton principals' self-reports of overall effectiveness and effectiveness on 29 effectiveness are reported in Table 9.9. As with the school effectiveness responses, principals in Edmonton rated their own effectiveness in similar fashion to those in the larger sample. Most important, mean ratings on every item were within 0.2 on the six-point scale.

On such a sensitive issue as the effectiveness of principals, teachers were asked to provide only one rating of their chief school administrator: effectiveness in displaying leadership by the principal. For the purpose of subsequent comparison, responses on this item were compared (school by school in the significance tests) with principals' and area superintendents' ratings of the principal's overall effectiveness as a leader. The area superintendents, however, were also invited to rate the performance of principals on 12 of the criteria upon which principals judged their own work. Table 9.10 reports percentage frequencies and means derived from those responses.

The nine area superintendents' ratings of 33 principals resulted in a mean overall effectiveness level of 4.7 on the six-point scale; this is beyond the "slightly effective" level but short of a perception that principals are "moderately effective" on the whole. Principals were judged to be moderately effective in providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff (mean 5.0) and in allocating resources (5.0), and relatively high support was given to principals' performance in publicizing school goals (4.9) and providing feedback to staff (4.9). Ratings on other criteria were somewhat lower. Principals were thought to be little more than "slightly effective," on average, in enlisting the support of the non-parent community (4.3); 23% of principals were rated as

Table 9.10

Edmonton Area Superintendents' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Principals

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)			Percent		
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Effective	n^1	Mean
1. Coordinating the development of school goals	–	3	15	12	45	24	82	33	4.7
2. Publicizing school goals	–	6	12	6	39	36	82	33	4.9
3. Exercising instructional leadership	3	6	6	24	33	27	85	33	4.6
4. Improving the performance of staff	–	6	9	24	33	27	85	33	4.7
5. Evaluating staff members	–	3	6	15	54	21	91	33	4.8
6. Providing feedback to staff	–	3	12	15	33	36	85	33	4.9
7. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	–	3	3	21	36	36	94	33	5.0
8. Obtaining qualified staff	–	3	15	15	30	36	82	33	4.8
9. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	–	3	9	21	55	12	88	33	4.6
10. Allocating resources	–	–	9	18	39	33	91	33	5.0
11. Enlisting the support of parents	–	9	3	18	36	33	88	33	4.8
12. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	–	16	7	26	39	13	77	31	4.3
13. Overall effectiveness as a leader	–	9	3	24	33	30	88	33	4.7

Area superintendents rated the effectiveness of principals on each criterion using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").

1. Nine area superintendents rated a total of 33 school principals.

ineffective in this capacity. Responses about exercising instructional leadership were only slightly more positive, with the mean rating being 4.6 and with 15% of principals attracting ineffective ratings--some at the lower end of the scale. Indeed, the wide range of responses from area superintendents reflected a view that a sizeable proportion of principals in the Edmonton sub-sample were less than effective across the spectrum of their leadership responsibilities.

Table 9.11 displays comparable mean ratings obtained from principals, teachers (on one item only) and area superintendents (on a limited array of items). Analysis through *t*-tests did not establish any statistically significant differences in the responses; moreover, differences in some figures in the table need to be viewed in the light of three influences noted earlier: the effects of pairwise deletion (for school-by-school comparison), variability of responses, and rounding of means. On overall effectiveness, the only comparison which included an assessment by teachers, principals and staff members concurred on a mean effectiveness rating of 5.1; area superintendents, however, were less supportive (4.7). As an indication of the relative spread in these responses, standard deviations for the overall item were as follows: principals 0.44; teachers 0.84 (based on school means; 1.3 on individual responses); and area superintendents 1.21. Clearly, principals' self-appraisals exhibited much less diversity than was evident in the appraisals of other observers.

Comparisons of principals' and area superintendents' appraisals on individual criteria are constrained by the limited array of variables upon which the area superintendents had been requested to respond. Nevertheless, based on means for each group, principals' self-assessments of performance consistently exceeded those assigned by area superintendents (on 11 of the 12 criteria). Largest differences were effectiveness of principals in exercising instructional leadership (principals 5.1; area superintendents 4.6), obtaining qualified staff (5.3; 4.8) and allocating tasks appropriately among staff (5.1; 4.6). Only on enlisting the support of the non-parent community was the area superintendents' mean rating (4.3) slightly higher than that of the principals themselves (4.1).

The differing sets of criteria presented to principals and area superintendents limited comparison of rank-ordered effectiveness means to the smaller collection of 12 items. Although the incompleteness of such a comparison did not warrant inclusion of a table and extensive examination, certain dissimilarities were evident. Both groups ranked principals highest on providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff (ranked equal first of the 12 by principals; first by area superintendents), allocating resources (third; second) and providing feedback to staff (fourth; equal third), and lowest on enlisting the support of the non-parent community. Virtually all of the remaining criteria, however, reflected disparate rankings--a finding that emphasized the discrepant nature of perceptions of these two constituencies.

Importance of Principalship Effectiveness Criteria

A further focus of data collection from Edmonton principals and area superintendents was the importance of various criteria for judging the overall effectiveness of elementary school principals (Research Question 28). In accordance with a concern to minimize data collection from teachers about the issue of principals' effectiveness, teachers were not requested to respond on this matter.

Table 9.12 records the percentage frequency distributions and means of importance ratings assigned by the Edmonton principals. Apart from minor exceptions, the rankings of Edmonton principals' mean ratings of importance differed little from the responses of the larger sample which were reported earlier. As with the Alberta-wide study, principals in this city location tended to regard all 29 of the criteria offered for consideration as important dimensions for appraisal of elementary school principals.

Area superintendents proposed, in order of priority, three criteria that they regarded as most crucial for judging the effectiveness of elementary school principals. Those responses are shown in Table 9.13.

While comparison of principals' and area superintendents' responses was constrained by the small number of area superintendents involved and the different method used to solicit their perceptions, some noticeable similarities and discrepancies

Table 9.13

Criteria Identified by Edmonton Area Superintendents as Being Important for Judging the Effectiveness of Principals
(n=9)

	Order of Importance			Total Mentions[1]	
Criterion	Third	Second	First	f	%f
1. Exercising instructional leadership	2		2	4	44
2. Improving the performance of staff	1	1	1	3	33
3. Being concerned for students' well being	1		1	2	22
4. Promoting the achievement of school goals	1	1		2	22
5. Exhibiting personal relations skills	1	1		2	22
6. Setting an example for staff and students			1	1	11
7. Promoting student achievement			1	1	11
8. Coordinating development of school goals			1	1	11
9. Achieving district priorities			1	1	11
10. Encouraging high expectations of students and staff		1		1	11
11. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents		1		1	11
12. Displaying an ability to enthuse teachers		1		1	11
13. Maintaining support of *all* stakeholders	1			1	11
14. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff	1			1	11
15. Allocating resources	1			1	11
16. Exhibiting management skills and high moral calibre	1			1	11

1. Each area superintendent was asked to suggest three criteria, in order of importance.

were apparent. The criterion advanced most frequently by the area superintendents was excercising instructional leadership (proposed by four of the nine respondents); one observed that this first requires that the principal is "knowledgeable about children's learning." A second important criterion was improving the performance of staff--which one area superintendent saw as an assessment of "strong leadership in fostering teacher growth." Many other criteria received less frequent support. Two of the higher priority criteria--improving the performance of staff and promoting the achievement of school goals--were also assigned relatively high ratings by principals; however, the leading matter of exercising instructional leadership was not. Moreover, none of principals' highest ranked criteria--communicating with staff, obtaining qualified staff, and making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions--was mentioned by area superintendents as an important basis for assessing the effectiveness of principals; and a further item, encouraging high expectations of students, was advanced by only one area superintendent.

In summary, divergent perceptions predominated. Principals tended to emphasize interactions with staff and students, whereas area superintendents placed priority on goal attainment, student achievement and the interests of the external environment.

Perceptions of EPSD Principals, Teachers, Area Superintendents, Students and Parents

To assist in obtaining information in connection with Research Questions 24 and 26 about the current effectiveness of schools and principals, further important constituency perspectives were added by comparing mean ratings on selected variables with responses to similar questions asked in a 1986-87 Edmonton Public School District (EPSD) survey. Comparison of those findings served as a guide, if a limited one, to the perceptions of the five constituencies that were arguably of most importance and best informed about the levels of effectiveness in elementary schools.

As noted in Chapter 3, certain methodological limitations were associated with this comparison; and, for this reason, the responses of teachers for the two studies were compared (Table 9.14). Preliminary remarks need to be made about this validity check.

Analysis of the two sets of responses by teachers resulted in generally consistent mean ratings on many items, but there were also two substantial differences. In the matter of effectiveness of schools in maximizing the job satisfaction of staff, teachers' responses on the EPSD survey were 0.6 higher than those obtained from the present inquiry. On the other hand, ratings in the present study were 0.4 to 0.8 higher on obtaining support from the community. Many uncontrollable and immeasurable factors may have intervened to affect the comparability of the findings. The schools from which teachers had been selected were the same, and both sets of ratings had been acquired during the 1986-87 school year. On the other hand, response rates for the EPSD study were not known; and, in the present study, only 65.7% of teachers in 26 of the 27 schools returned questionnaires. Differences may also have been due to the timing of data collection during the year or to teachers' perceptions of the differing purposes of the two investigations. Different rating scales represented a further possible limitation on comparability: the EPSD instrument gave teachers' fewer options for responding about effectiveness on each criterion. Students' and parents' responses may also have been affected by differences in scaling. In addition, different meanings or interpretations of items in the two studies may have resulted in some discrepancies.

While these potential influences and the two substantially different responses had to be acknowledged, differences between teachers' mean ratings on the other seven items were within 0.3 on a six-point scale. The fact that few discrepancies were sizeable gave some assurance about validity of the present study and lent credibility to the comparison, although the existence of some degree of inconsistency did signal a need for caution in interpreting the findings and drawing conclusions from this two-study comparison.

The following findings about the effectiveness of schools and principals are presented in that light. They are summarized in Table 9.14.

Effectiveness of Schools

Similar items in the two studies permitted comparison of perceptions about school effectiveness in 12 aspects of school activity. However, no comparison with the EPSD results on overall effectiveness was possible, and only nine of those comparisons included assessments by students and/or parents.

Students and parents tended to share the perceptions of principals, teachers and area superintendents that the elementary schools in EPSD were generally effective in each of the following nine domains: communicating school goals; expecting and encouraging student success; student learning; extra-curricular activities; student satisfaction; enforcement of rules; communicating with the community; obtaining community support and involvement; and satisfaction of parents. In no instance did any constituency rate school effectiveness at a mean level lower than the scale mean of 3.5.

A second noteworthy generalization is that students and parents rated effectiveness relatively higher on the nine dimensions for which comparisons were possible--although this outcome may be partly attributable to the different scales used by those constituencies. Even so, there was some variation in students' and parents' responses in the nine comparable areas.

Students rated effectiveness highest in respect of student learning and enforcement of rules (5.7), whereas the parents' highest rating was for satisfaction of parents (5.8)--clearly matters of immediate concern and awareness for those constituencies. Students also viewed their schools as effective in informing them of organizational goals, although behavioural expectations seemed to be better communicated to them than were learning goals; parents tended to share that perception. In addition, students experienced a high degree of satisfaction with their school, although perhaps not so consistently as their parents believed to be the case. In two instances, parents assigned relatively low mean ratings. The first related to the information they received about the district's programs and accomplishments (4.4); in the main study this perception may have been overshadowed by positive responses about school-based information for parents. Likewise, involvement of parents in the budget-planning process at school received a comparatively low rating from parents (4.8), and, in the present study, this view may have been obscured by positive attitudes about parents' involvement in school programs and activities. Based on virtually equivalent scales, parents consistently judged effectiveness more favourably than did the students.

Effectiveness of Principals

In the matter of principals' performance, comparisons of data from the two studies were limited to four generally equivalent aspects. Furthermore, students and parents were involved only in an overall appraisal of effectiveness of the school leaders. Even so, that comparison was informative. As with the school effectiveness responses, students and parents shared the perception of the other three constituencies that principals within the district tended to be effective personnel. Although the scales used may again have had a bearing on the comparison, the mean ratings indicated that the parents and students were at least as impressed with the performance of their school principals as were teachers, area superintendents, and even the principals themselves.

Summary

Despite isolated inconsistencies, principals in the two Edmonton school districts tended to view the effectiveness of their schools in similar fashion to the principals in the entire Alberta sample. Teachers' global ratings of their schools were at the "moderately effective" level, slightly below the mean rating of principals, and area superintendents ratings of overall effectiveness were even lower. This pattern also characterized many of the responses about effectiveness on the individual criteria examined. Principals' perceptions were significantly more positive than were those of teachers and area superintendents in many domains--particularly in connection with those that seemed to relate most directly to their own work. Teachers were relatively more positive in rating classroom-oriented performance. Findings about the dimensions of greatest effectiveness were also fundamentally different for principals and teachers. Edmonton principals, teachers and area superintendents advanced a range of additional school effectiveness criteria. One point of perceptual consensus in this regard was the expansive array of dimensions upon which all three constituencies considered that the performance of elementary schools should be assessed.

Principals and teachers regarded all of the specified criteria as important elements to be included in judgements of school effectiveness. Differences in emphases were identified, although these were not substantial. Given the freedom to advance preferred criteria, the small number of area superintendents tended to propose somewhat different aspects as most important.

Teachers referred to a range of constraints on school effectiveness: work and time commitments of staff, fiscal restraint, attitudes of students, parental and community attitudes, financial priorities and expectations of central administrators, behaviour and attitudes of teachers and principals, as well as other organizational features. Area superintendents concentrated more on deficiencies of staff members and of the school-based administrators, but admitted the impact of other parties as well. All three groups of respondents acknowledged that inhibiting influences can arise from any of the major educational constituencies.

Edmonton principals and teachers tended to agree that principals were at least "moderately effective" as school leaders. Area superintendents rated the overall effectiveness of principals lower, although the difference was not statistically significant. A similar pattern emerged with effectiveness ratings on specific items--except for enlisting the support of the non-parent community, where area superintendents' perceptions were relatively favourable.

As in the Alberta study, principals in Edmonton considered all of the principalship effectiveness criteria recorded in the questionnaire to be important elements for performance appraisal. Criteria that principals regarded as most important were not among those suggested by most area superintendents.

Based on a comparison of selected findings from this study with findings from a study conducted by one Edmonton jurisdiction, all five constituencies involved were found to have rated schools as effective to some degree on the nine aspects examined. Principals were likewise perceived by all constituencies to be generally effective leaders. Furthermore, in both respects, judgements of effectiveness by students and parents were even more supportive than were those of the other three constituencies. The perspectives of the five constituencies, however, also exhibited some noteworthy differences in perceptions. In particular, parents seemed to view schools more positively than did the students.

CHAPTER 10

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents an overview of the study, a summary of major statistical findings and other common perceptions, a discussion of the findings, and a consideration of practical and research implications arising from the study.

Overview of the Study

This study was conducted to probe within an educational context the job satisfaction of administrators, the effectiveness of organizations, the effectiveness of administrators, and interrelationships among the three constructs. A subsidiary intent was the investigation of different constituencies' perceptions about effectiveness. A review of relevant literature and a series of preliminary interviews served as bases for the development of questionnaires to elicit responses from principals of a random sample of 131 elementary schools in Alberta and from teachers and area superintendents associated with an Edmonton sub-sample of those schools. A still more geographically confined comparison of findings was also made with students' and parents' responses to an independent survey about effectiveness. Ten principals participated in follow-up interviews; these permitted important findings to be examined further.

Numerical data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical techniques: frequency distributions, means, Pearson, Spearman and Kendall correlation coefficients, stepwise multiple linear regression, analysis of variance and cross-tabulations. Interviews and open-ended responses on questionnaires provided valuable additional information about the important dimensions of satisfaction and effectiveness. Content analysis of those responses was supplemented by detailed recording and, where appropriate, quotation of individual perceptions.

Summary of Findings

This section reviews the major statistical findings and patterns in the perceptions obtained from interviews and open-ended questionnaire responses; some individual responses are added for explanatory purposes. Conflicting opinions are omitted. Only the statistical findings from this study can be confidently viewed as representative of the state of affairs in elementary schools throughout Alberta. Results of the Edmonton comparison of constituencies' perceptions are generalizable only to elementary schools in that region.

Job Satisfaction

Principals expressed overall satisfaction with their work (mean 5.14 on the six-point scale). Most commonly, principals were "moderately satisfied," and only two of the 112 respondents were dissatisfied in their positions as principals. While principals were most satisfied with their working relationships with teachers and their relationships with students, they were generally satisfied with all 41 facets examined. Nevertheless, the number of hours that principals are required to work and the way in which teachers and boards consult about teachers' working conditions were less satisfying than other dimensions of the job; some principals expressed particular dissatisfaction with these.

When interviewed, principals identified similar job facets as most satisfying, although some variation in emphases was apparent. Some favoured relationships with staff and students, others the commitment or satisfaction of staff, and others the feeling of fulfilment and recognition arising out of successful performance. Interviewees also made reference to various matters, such as interpersonal conflict, unavailability of time and resources, resistance to change, and principals' powerlessness, as dissatisfying aspects of their work.

Four variables contributed significantly to the variance in overall job satisfaction: the effect of the job on the principal's personal life; the principal's social position in the community; the authority associated with the principal's position; and achievement of the principal's own professional objectives. Each of the first three predictors was also closely linked with satisfaction with many other facets. While the best predictor was the most strongly correlated facet with overall job satisfaction, regression analysis masked moderate positive correlations between overall job satisfaction and five additional factors: the principal's sense of accomplishment (the second best correlate); the competence of teachers outside their classrooms; recognition of the principal's work; the principal's relationship with the superintendent; and the satisfaction and morale of staff.

Sense of accomplishment re-emerged in this study as a central aspect of overall job satisfaction. It bore particularly strong relationships with the effect of the job on the principal's personal life; it was clearly associated with the other three predictors of overall satisfaction; and it correlated strongly with six of the seven best correlates of principals' overall job satisfaction. One variable, successful completion of projects and tasks, had been included in the study to assess its association with sense of accomplishment; however, this relationship proved to be weaker than many others. Sense of accomplishment did not emerge as a link between principals' job satisfaction and their perceptions of effectiveness. Interview responses supported the statistical finding that sense of accomp[illegible]ment is intimately associated with principals' overall job satisfaction. On the other hand, those responses reflected wide disagreement about the meaning of that phenomenon. Even the seemingly logical view that sense of accomplishment relates to completion of discrete tasks was a matter of contention.

Overall job satisfaction also varied according to demographic characteristics of schools and personal attributes of principals, although none of those differences was statistically significant. Principals in city schools tended to be more satisfied than principals in rural locations and towns. Interviewees' opinions about regional differences in satisfaction, however, conflicted. Principals in school divisions and public school districts were more satisfied than were their counterparts in separate school districts; principals in counties were still less satisfied.

School size was associated with some variation in job satisfaction for principals. Satisfaction was highest among the principals of medium-sized schools (200-299 students) and lowest in very small (fewer than 100) and very large (400 or more) schools. One interviewee attributed lower satisfaction in small schools to a frustrating lack of opportunity for collegial interaction among staff and a lack of challenge for principals. Another principal regarded large schools as stressful and, therefore, dissatisfying for principals. Despite these consistent findings, job satisfaction was higher for principals in schools with fewer than 10 teachers. Principals with one vice-principal tended to record the highest levels of satisfaction.

Personal characteristics seemed to have some bearing on job satisfaction. Female principals, who were relatively few in number, were more satisfied than male principals. Older principals (50 or older) rated their job satisfaction higher than did younger colleagues. Interview responses, however, tended to contradict this finding about age and satisfaction. Principals who aspired only to principalship were marginally more satisfied than those whose ambitions lay elsewhere. Principals in their first or second year of school leadership were more satisfied than respondents with more experience. Respondents of 11-15 years' standing as principals were also relatively satisfied with their jobs. Almost half of the principals in the study had completed at least six years of post-secondary education; their mean level job satisfaction was exceeded only by principals with five years of higher education experience.

Ratings of the importance of job facets for principals' overall job satisfaction revealed the 41 aspects investigated to be of consequence. The principal's working relationships with teachers and the teaching competence of teachers were particularly highly rated, as were the satisfaction and morale of staff and the help that the principal gives teachers and students. Follow-up interviews confirmed the importance of these issues. Two matters of least importance were the principal's social position in the community and the principal's social relationships with teachers; each attracted ratings across the importance scale. Interviewees tended to support these findings, although there was some dissension. Open-ended responses provided further information about important issues for principals: some emphasized the interaction between principals' work and personal lives; others noted the impact of time constraints and environmental influences on principals' job satisfaction.

Comparison of rank-ordered means of satisfaction and importance for the various facets highlighted some congruence in those two sets of responses. Nevertheless, three particularly satisfying matters--the principal's responsibility for formal evaluation of teachers, the principal's social relationships with teachers, and the principal's social position in the community--were not among the most important. Two highly important facets--availability of clerical staff and the principal's involvement in hiring of staff--were ranked relatively low on satisfaction. These disparities were reinforced by the finding that none of the best predictors of overall job satisfaction was among the ten most important job facets, and by regression analysis which indicated that respondents' overall job satisfaction and their importance ratings did not covary substantially.

Cross-tabulation of individual respondents' ratings of importance and satisfaction established little concurrence of extreme ratings on the two scales. This finding conflicted with the theoretical assertion that feelings about the importance of facets for overall job satisfaction influence the strength of responses about levels of facet satisfaction experienced.

Effectiveness of Schools

In a global sense, most principals in the Alberta sample regarded their schools as "moderately effective" (mean 5.16). With regard to performance on specific criteria, ratings were most positive in connection with the effectiveness of schools in maintaining an appropriate school climate, maintaining communication with the community, obtaining community support, and acknowledging achievements of staff and students.

Other staff- and student-related matters were also associated with high effectiveness means, as was the matter of maximizing parental satisfacion. While means on all 38 criteria were above the scale mean, principals' ratings were relatively low on effectiveness in maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community--on which 16% of schools were judged to be ineffective--communicating school goals to students, maximizing the development of creativity, and preparing lessons and materials collaboratively.

These findings should also be viewed in the context of other constituencies' perceptions of school effectiveness. The Edmonton sub-study revealed that principals' assessments of their schools were substantially--and, in many instances, statistically significantly--more positive than teachers' and area superintendents' appraisals of the same schools. Ratings of overall effectiveness, although not among the statistically significant differences, are indicative of a general pattern in those responses: principals 5.2; teachers 5.0; and area superintendents 4.7.

A second pattern of discrepant opinion was that principals tended to award relatively high effectiveness ratings on criteria for which principals might be expected to be primarily responsible (e.g., maintaining an appropriate school climate, maximizing staff satisfaction, maximizing staff morale, maintaining low turnover of staff, taking advantage of staffing changes, and responding to changing community expectations). Teachers likewise tended to rate effectiveness relatively favourably in areas concerning their own work (communicating school goals to students, emphasizing academic subjects, keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology, and demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter). Area superintendents' responses were the highest only in respect of maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community--a sector to which they may be particularly receptive. Consistent with these findings EPSD students viewed effectiveness most positively in connection with student learning and rule enforcement, and parents' highest rating was for satisfaction of parents--matters with which each of those constituencies might be expected to be especially concerned and familiar. One further finding was that parents' ratings tended to exceed those of students.

Returning to the findings from principals across Alberta, the school climate variable was not only regarded as the most effective dimension of the schools' work but was the best predictor and best individual correlate of the overall effectiveness variable. In addition, it was associated with many variables, particularly those relating to staff members' attitudes and behaviour and students' attitudes. Three other variables also contributed significantly in the regression analysis: maximizing the satisfaction of parents; maintaining high expectations of staff; and keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology. The first of these had much in common with other environmental variables as well as with effectiveness in maintaining an appropriate school climate. The second was also linked with the climate variable and with many staff-related matters. The last significant predictor was more closely related to the efficiency of resource use and knowledge of teachers. Its relatively low effectiveness rating highlighted this matter as a possible focus for improvement.

Overall effectiveness of schools exhibited some associations with organizational characteristics of the schools and personal characteristics of the principals. City schools emerged as marginally more effective than schools in rural and town settings. One interviewee attributed this finding to city schools' better access to resources, although another argued that parental support is superior in small communities. Public district schools were rated as more effective than schools in divisions, counties and separate districts.

Schools with moderately large (300-399) or very small (fewer than 100) enrolments were the most effective: very large schools were the least effective. Small staff size was also associated with greater effectiveness. In contrast, effectiveness was positively related to the number of vice-principals in schools. Interview responses supported the finding of reduced effectiveness in large schools, owing to their isolation of staff members and impersonal treatment of students. On the other hand, most interviewees also regarded small school size as detrimental to organizational effectiveness, on account of split-grade classes, restricted funding and program options, limited range of expertise and lack of opportunity for professional interaction.

Female principals' perceptions of school effectiveness were significantly higher than those of males. Schools were also judged to be somewhat more effective where principals aspired to other positions and where principals had completed five years of higher education studies. While older principals were marginally more positive about the effectiveness of their schools, those in their second year of principalship reported higher levels of school effectiveness than did more experienced colleagues. There was great variability in first-year principals' ratings of school effectiveness.

Principals' ratings of importance revealed the following criteria as most important for judging the effectiveness of elementary schools: maintaining an appropriate school climate; maintaining high expectations of students; maximizing achievement in reading and writing; displaying leadership by the principal; maximizing students' satisfaction and morale; maximizing staff morale; using appropriate teaching methods; and acknowledging achievements by staff and students. These highly rated issues seem to relate first to attitudes and literacy of students, then leadership by the principal, followed by attitudes and practices of staff. Least important of the criteria examined were maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community, maintaining low turnover of staff, frequently evaluating students according to defined standards, preparing collaboratively for instruction, providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities, and preparing students for junior high school. At the same time, most principals regarded all 39 criteria as important elements of a comprehensive assessment of school effectiveness. A small number of respondents also commended additional criteria.

Interviewees tended to corroborate this general finding, and their perceptions of highest priority criteria included matters relating to students, teachers, parents and the community. They also clarified the nature of some criteria. "High expectations" was viewed as individualized, realistic expectations. An "appropriate" climate for elementary schools was said to be characterized by pervasive attitudes of care, acceptance and cooperation among teachers and students. The notion of "orderliness," portrayed in some effective schools literature as a quiet and disciplined atmosphere (see Mackenzie, 1983; Purkey & Smith, 1983), was questioned by some interviewees. Emphasis was placed on "consideration for others" rather than on strict supervision; regimentation may inhibit educational growth. The lowest rankings of criteria--non-parent satisfaction, student evaluation, and low staff turnover--were confirmed by interviewees, although not without some dissension.

The Edmonton comparison of perspectives revealed one major point of consensus in connection with the importance of criteria: principals and teachers regarded the whole range of criteria examined in the study as important for judging the effectiveness of elementary schools. Some principals and teachers even advocated additional criteria that might be helpful and, within both constituencies, the additional items ranged across the elements of the organizational system. The limited investigation of area superintendents' effectiveness priorities indicated some agreement with the perceptions of principals and teachers. At the same time, area superintendents paid greatest attention to student attainment.

One discrepancy between principals and teachers was principals' relatively strong support for maintaining high expectations of staff, a criterion of particular consequence for teachers. Another difference was teachers' comparatively high regard for enforcing behavioural rules among students, a criterion against which principals may be judged.

With regard to the Alberta principals' ratings, comparison of effectiveness and importance ratings indicated some general consensus in rankings. More particularly, certain important areas were identified in which schools were also relatively successful--for example, maintaining an appropriate school climate, acknowledging achievements of staff and students, and displaying staff cooperation and cohesiveness. Low staff turnover and an emphasis on academic subjects were less important but also highly effective areas of schools' work. On the other hand, schools were less effective on other important criteria: maintaining high expectations of students; displaying leadership by the principal; maximizing students' satisfaction and morale; maximizing staff morale; using appropriate teaching methods; and maximizing mathematics achievement. Regression analysis using importance ratings further revealed that the criteria that were best predictors of overall effectiveness were not among the most effective dimensions; many principals did not seem to judge the overall effectiveness of their schools according to some criteria that they perceived to be most vital for that purpose. The foregoing findings, however, were derived only from comparisons of rankings and prediction and regression analyses; they cannot be taken to mean that performance was seriously or pervasively deficient in those areas.

Principals in this study identified many constraints which may limit the effectiveness of elementary schools. While individual perceptions varied markedly, nine emphases were discerned: staff time and workload; inadequacy of resources; attitudes of students (this was mentioned infrequently); parental and community circumstances, attitudes and influence; demands and restrictive influences of school system and provincial administrators; dispositions and work of teachers; ineffective principals; various organizational attributes of some schools; and (according to one principal) an inappropriate philosophical stance on the part of many educators and administrators.

Teachers and area superintendents in Edmonton also advanced many factors as serious impediments to effective performance. One important consistency was that the three groups of respondents implicated all organizational constituencies as constraining forces (except for students, which attracted infrequent mention). Principals also focussed attention on organization-wide problems such as dealings with central office personnel and community expectations; whereas teachers were especially concerned about and were specific in detailing classroom-related constraints and the deficiencies of principals.

Effectiveness of Principals

Based on their self-appraisals, the principals emerged as "moderately effective" overall (mean 5.13); none was seen as ineffective. With regard to performance on specific criteria, however, perceptions varied more markedly. Areas of greatest effectiveness included the following: exercising exemplary behaviour at school; making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions; communicating with staff; and providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff. Instructional leadership was not among the most effective dimensions. While most principals considered themselves to be effective to some degree in all 29 aspects examined, relatively low means emerged in respect of effectiveness in enlisting the support of the non-parent community (in which 12% regarded themselves as ineffective), improving the performance of staff, communicating with the community, adapting policies and procedures to accommodate external change and expectations, identifying community expectations, and coordinating and integrating the activities of staff.

These findings are tempered somewhat by the comparison of Edmonton constituencies' perceptions of the effectiveness of principals. Principals and teachers concurred about global effectiveness (means 5.1): the mean for area superintendents, however, was somewhat lower (4.7). Area superintendents' effectiveness ratings were also lower than those of principals for every criterion except enlisting the support of the non-parent community. On the other hand, a limited comparison with EPSD data indicated that students and parents had very positive perceptions of the effectiveness of school principals.

Prediction analysis established four seemingly central dimensions of principals' overall performance. Best predictors included the following: making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions; identifying community expectations, communicating with staff; and allocating tasks appropriately among staff. Each predictor also correlated strongly with overall effectiveness and with measures of performance in many other areas. In addition, correlation analysis showed the overall effectiveness variable to be independently linked with many other specific effectiveness variables. One important finding from this analysis was the substantial intercorrelation of all dimensions of principalship effectiveness.

The overall effectiveness of principals differed according to some organizational and personal attributes examined in this study. Principals of city schools rated their performance more favourably than did principals in towns and rural locations; the differences, however, were insubstantial. Ratings by principals in public school districts were significantly higher than those by separate school district principals and somewhat higher than those by principals in divisions and counties.

With regard to school size, moderately large and very small schools were associated with relatively high effectiveness ratings--a finding that was consistent with global assessment of school effectiveness. On the other hand, principals in schools with 20 or more teachers and two or three vice-principals seemed to be the most effective.

Female principals' more positive self-assessments of effectiveness were also consistent with their ratings of school effectiveness; in this instance, however, the difference was not statistically significant. Some interviewees attributed superior performance by female principals to their dedication; in turn, one saw this as arising out of a need to overcome scepticism about their administrative competence. Alternative explanations were also advanced. Age and effectiveness of principals seemed to be positively related, although not to a significant extent. Interview responses tended to contradict this finding.

Principals with aspirations other than principalship assigned slightly higher overall ratings than those who wished to remain as principals. One interviewee saw ambitious principals as more interested in change and therefore more effective. Others, however, doubted the effectiveness of principals whose actions may be motivated by a desire for professional recognition.

Principals with 4-9 years in the present appointment and principals in their second year of school leadership had higher ratings of overall effectiveness than did other principals. Effectiveness was also greatest among principals without equivalent experience in other schools. Interviewees tended to consider that effectiveness increases with experience as a school principal.

Effectiveness of principals varied significantly according to respondents' years of post-secondary education. Those with five years of study were significantly more effective than principals with either fewer or more years.

As with the investigation of school effectiveness, all 29 criteria of principalship effectiveness examined in this study were regarded by most principals as important for judging their overall performance. Most critical were the matters of communicating with staff, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, fostering high morale among staff and students, and providing feedback to staff. Most of these criteria are associated with staff. Arising out of some dissension about their importance, the lowest rated criteria were enlisting the support of the non-parent community, adapting policies and procedures to suit external expectations, coordinating the activities of staff, and communicating with groups in the community. At interview, principals found difficulty in attaching priorities to specific, highly important criteria; effort to do so resulted in a wide variety of perceptions, and this seemed to support the statistical finding of many important criteria. Interviewees were divided about the importance of the principal's role in enlisting support from the non-parent community.

Investigation of Edmonton principals' importance ratings and area superintendents' priorities revealed differing effectiveness emphases. Principals seemed to be especially concerned about interactions with students and staff, whereas priorities for area superintendents included goal attainment, student achievement and satisfaction of environmental interests.

Comparison of Alberta principals' responses about the most important criteria and most effective dimensions revealed a high degree of correspondence, and specific well-directed emphases of principals were identified. These matters included decision making, communicating with staff and students, providing an appropriate work environment, promoting high expectations among staff and students, fostering high morale, and obtaining support from parents. Principals were also highly effective in allocating resources and exercising exemplary behaviour--two areas of lesser importance. Three criteria of high ranking importance, however, were areas of lower effectiveness: obtaining qualified staff; providing feedback to staff; and, in particular, improving the performance of staff. Many of the strong correlates of overall effectiveness also differed from the highly ranked criteria, and regression analysis using importance ratings revealed little systematic association between importance ratings and levels of overall effectiveness. Even so, most principals rated themselves as effective to some degree in every area of their work examined.

Principals identified many institutional and personal constraints on their effectiveness as elementary school administrators. While many individual concerns were expressed, they related to the following nine general aspects of school life: principals' workload and time commitments; inadequacy of resources; behaviour of students (referred to by only one principal); parental and community influences; conflicting expectations of principals; attitudes, demands and deficiencies of school systems; shortcomings of teachers; undesirable attributes of principals; and organizational characteristics specific to some schools.

Relationships Among the Constructs

Job satisfaction seemed to bear little relationship with school effectiveness. The two overall variables were not strongly associated ($r = .27$). The effectiveness of schools in displaying cooperation and cohesiveness and in maintaining an appropriate school climate were the only two school effectiveness variables that exhibited substantial independent associations with principals' overall job satisfaction, although eight variables made a cumulative contribution of 45.6% of the variance in overall satisfaction. Conversely, three facet satisfaction items contributed significantly to a total of 32.4% of the variance in the overall effectiveness of schools; however, only the best predictor, the principal's relationships with students, displayed a clear independent link with overall effectiveness. One other job facet, successful completion of projects and tasks, was also associated with the overall effectiveness variables. Various indirect relationships between specific job facets and effectiveness dimensions were also identified, but no additional items appeared repeatedly as intervening variables.

Interviewees, on the other hand, were more certain about a link between principals' job satisfaction and the effectiveness of schools. Most considered that satisfaction is derived from realizing and being told that their schools are operating successfully.

Statistical analysis revealed only a slightly stronger relationship between the overall satisfaction and overall effectiveness of principals (r = .31). Upon closer examination, only the principal's effectiveness in increasing the satisfaction of staff and effectiveness in evaluating staff members bore relationships of substance with overall job satisfaction. Analysis based on individual job facets and principals' overall effectiveness revealed few relationships of note. Lawler and Porter's (1976) theory of rewards as intervening variables was supported to the extent of only one intrinsic reward variable--successful completion of projects and tasks.

Principals who were interviewed, however, conceived of a much clearer relationship between their job satisfaction and effectiveness. At the same time, the direction of such a relationship was a matter of some disagreement.

Not surprisingly, the two effectiveness constructs were strongly related. The correlation coefficient for the global variables was .65. Detailed analysis of effectiveness dimensions also highlighted the expansiveness of that connection. Most particularly, many aspects of principals' performance seemed to be systematically associated with the global and criterion effectiveness of schools.

While causality cannot be inferred from correlational analysis, a common explanation in the literature is that the performance of principals influences organizational effectiveness. Interviewees in this study supported that explanation. Many considered the effectiveness of a school to be largely dependent upon the effectiveness of its chief administrator. In addition, the school effectiveness findings summarized earlier also differed according to selected attributes of principals, and area superintendents in Edmonton all concurred that principals are important contributors to school effectiveness. All of these findings were mutually reinforcing of a connection between the two effectiveness constructs.

Discussion

The findings derived from this study offer insights and raise important questions about job satisfaction and effectiveness in schools, particularly in the context of prior research.

Job Satisfaction

The principals in this study were satisfied with their work, not only in a global sense but in most areas of their work--an outcome that is consistent with Gunn's (1984) general finding about senior high school principals and Rice's (1978) earlier study with principals in Alberta. At the same time, many elementary school principals expressed varying degrees of dissatisfaction with specific aspects of their jobs; and these matters may represent a cause for some concern. By way of comparison, the elementary school principals were more satisfied than those at the senior high school level in respect of student- and staff-related matters, but considerably less satisfied with their freedom to allocate teaching assignments, their hours of work, their physical working conditions, their involvement in hiring teachers and their relationships with central office staff other than superintendents.

In addition, while the interview findings tended to confirm facets of the job that the quantitative results revealed as most satisfying for principals, some individuality in those responses highlighted the personal nature of job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with the cognitive theories of job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964) and with research regarding personal influences on satisfaction (e.g., Blase & Pajak, 1986; Fraser, 1983; Rice, 1978). Not only does this demonstrate the need for caution in drawing and generalizing conclusions such as that principals are reasonably satisfied with their work, but it emphasizes a need for specific attention to principals' individual situations and personalities.

The generally high levels of administrative job satisfaction expressed by principals may also be viewed with some scepticism, for job satisfaction must be interpreted in the context of respondents' needs (Maslow, 1970) and values (Locke, 1976). Headey and Wearing (1981, p. 29) have outlined the problem of interpretation:

> In interpreting [job satisfaction] results it is important it remember that satisfaction levels are based on (largely) sub-conscious comparisons between one's goals/aspirations and one's current situation. It follows that high satisfaction may result from relatively low aspirations as well as from positive feelings of achievement or contentment with one's current situation.

Nevertheless, in the absence of contradictory evidence, it seems reasonable to conclude that principalship may be a generally rewarding experience for many elementary school principals.

Although achievements of and relationships with teachers and students represented the most satisfying areas of principals' work, other aspects of principals' personal and professional lives seem to be more central to understanding of overall satisfaction levels. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life was the best correlate and predictor, and the principal's social position in the community and positional authority also contributed substantially to the variance in the overall variable. The principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator and recognition of the principal's work were also independently linked with global satisfaction ratings. Staff-related matters that did seem to have a substantial bearing on principals' overall job satisfaction concerned teachers' competence and morale.

The notion of sense of accomplishment as an administrator has emerged over recent years as a crucial element of job satisfaction in education (e.g., Gunn, 1984; Holdaway, 1978b; Rice, 1978; Schmidt, 1976) and elsewhere (e.g., Ewen et al., 1976; Smith et al., 1969). The findings from this study were no exception. On the other hand, Gunn and Holdaway's (1986) assertion that this job facet may also link the satisfaction of principals with their effectiveness and/or the effectiveness of their schools gained little support from the findings from this study. Nevertheless, the centrality of sense of accomplishment to the overall and facet satisfaction of elementary school principals justified special attention to this notion during follow-up interviews. In this regard, the follow-up interviews tended to confirm an earlier outcome of the preliminary interviews for the study. The overriding finding from detailed investigation of this variable was one of uncertainty among respondents about the substance and locus of the school administrator's sense of accomplishment.

Arising out of the quantitative and qualitative findings, the apparently pervasive influence of sense of accomplishment and the difficulty experienced in defining its meaning and sphere of relevance casts doubt on the appropriateness of merely equating this intangible aspect of the job with the other, more concrete job facets that were studied as possible contributors to overall job satisfaction. Moreover, the interview outcomes drew attention to the possibility that sense of accomplishment, though closely linked with various job facets and with the overall level of satisfaction obtained from administrative work, might itself be an affective product of satisfaction with those job facets. A seemingly more logical explanation still is that a feeling of accomplishment or achievement, *wherever* it can be found in the job, serves as either a source or one dimension of the overall satisfaction experienced by the worker. This view would explain its expansive but inextricable connection with many individual job facets as well as with overall job satisfaction. Of course, if accomplishment/achievement is seen as no more than one satisfying feature of the administrator's job, then its explanatory power is limited accordingly, and researchers might reasonably be led to discard sense of accomplishment as a spurious aspect of job facet satisfaction. On the other hand, for those who wish to probe the affective quality of satisfaction, sense of accomplishment might assume a position of prominence.

For the purposes of the present investigation, wherein attention was concentrated on the former matter of satisfying facets of the job, the sense of accomplishment variable may be regarded as being of little substantive importance. Preference may be better given to other, more readily identifiable aspects of the principal's function.

Certain attributes of schools and principals seem to have some bearing on principals' feelings of overall job satisfaction. Somewhat more positive ratings were obtained from principals in city locations, school divisions and public districts, and schools of medium size. Principals over 50 years of age, newly appointed principals and principals with five years of post-secondary education expressed greater satisfaction. The clearest difference arose according to the sex of the principal: females were generally more satisfied than males. None of those differences was statistically significant, however, so there is little cause to believe that satisfaction of the population of elementary school principals would differ in these ways.

The findings about importance support the view that job satisfaction is a complex and expansive construct. All 41 items examined were judged to be at least moderately important for principals' overall feelings of satisfaction, and individual respondents added further to this list of factors. Many principals regarded even the two facets with lowest mean ratings as important. The disparity of opinion about those items also highlighted the personal and situational nature of administrative job satisfaction.

The comparisons of facets according to relative importance and satisfaction may have implications for improving job satisfaction among principals. Although some job facets are already particularly rewarding for many principals, and although certain facets may currently exhibit strong statistical associations with existing overall satisfaction (thereby helping to understand some respondents' relatively high or low perceptions of overall satisfaction), a future direction may be to maximize satisfaction by attending to job facets which many principals see as major concerns. This may involve attending to relatively important but less satisfying facets for principals in general. Some of the important factors currently seem to have surprisingly little bearing on principals' overall satisfaction; in this respect, there remains a potential for exerting the greatest possible impact on principals' job satisfaction in general. By concentrating on existing problem areas some improvement may be recorded; yet it is the most critical facets which need to be attended to, in order that they might become not only more satisfying but also more influential in principals' overall feelings of work satisfaction.

At this point, a rival explanation of incongruities between importance ratings and satisfaction predictors and correlates needs to be considered. While personal or organizational circumstances may have relegated some important job facets to less than central influence in current satisfaction for principals, it may also be that the invitation to reflect upon and assign importance weightings to various job dimensions imposed an unreasonable demand on respondents' faculties of perception, reasoning and judgement. The emergence of these inconsistent individual importance and facet satisfaction rankings calls into question the feasibility of obtaining accurate appraisals of such abstract and sub-conscious issues as the relative importance of different job facets for producing some desired affective response. Thereby, we may be drawn to dismiss importance ratings of job satisfaction as elements of a realm of perceptions that defy rational assessment (see, e.g., Cameron & Whetten, 1983b). Whether or not this is so, the disparities recorded here do highlight a matter of which job satisfaction researchers need to be reminded--that their interest in pressing beyond purely intellectual, rational dimensions of social organization is necessarily affected, and at times impeded, by involvement in the equally crucial and influential but less stable, less investigable and less measurable domain of human emotion.

The proposition that importance weightings are reflected in satisfaction responses (Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1969; Wanous & Lawler, 1972) had not been investigated in the context of school administrators and had been examined only cursorily with teachers (MacQueen & Ignatovich, 1986). Hence, there was merit in comparing individual principals' responses about the most important facets with the strength of their reports of satisfaction experienced. If factors that were seen as highly or minimally important also attracted extreme ratings on the satisfaction scale, then there would be further support for the theoretical view of self-weighting of importance in perceptions of actual satisfaction. Of course, contrary to MacQueen and Ignatovich's assertion, such a finding still could not be seen as conclusive evidence of high priority facets receiving the most extreme ratings. To advance a rival explanation, the researcher could conceive of personally expressing a high degree of satisfaction with the salary accorded to an Alberta principal without expecting to rate that among the most important facets for his satisfaction in that position.

Furthermore, the findings from principals' responses did not support such a thesis. The strength of satisfaction ratings does not seem to reflect perceptions of importance. Therefore, current satisfaction ratings should not be used to gauge respondents' views of the relative importance of job facets for overall satisfaction; only importance data will suffice.

Effectiveness of Schools

Based on the perceptions of principals, elementary schools in Alberta may be "moderately effective" both in a global sense and in respect of performance across a range of dimensions. A similar pattern inhered in Gunn's (1984) findings in relation to senior high schools. The elementary schools emerged as substantially more effective in maximizing attainment in reading and writing and in maintaining communication with the community. Senior high schools were associated with greater flexibility in coping with overloads of work and emergencies. Other comparisons were limited by Gunn's restricted focus of inquiry.

While the Edmonton elementary school principals, teachers and area superintendents and EPSD students and parents associated with the present study all assigned generally positive ratings of effectiveness, the perceptions of teachers and area superintendents emerged as the least favourable. Reasons for these differing perspectives warrant investigation.

According to Alberta principals, the area of greatest effectiveness in this study was maintenance of an appropriate school climate. This also emerged as the best predictor of overall effectiveness. On two other predictors--maximizing parents' satisfaction and maintaining high expectations of staff--schools were also rated as highly effective. A fourth predictor, keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology, may offer some scope for improvement through in-service education or alternative means.

The foregoing observations need to be qualified. As Cameron (1986b) remarked, organizational effectiveness appraisals are most meaningful if the major aspects of performance can be identified. Beyond a general finding in this study that a wide array of criteria need to be included in judgements of school effectiveness, regression analysis identified the above four dimensions as the most powerful predictors of current levels of overall effectiveness as perceived by principals. That analysis, however, established only that those variables are features of elementary schools that may deserve close attention by researchers and by practitioners who seek improved performance in schools. They should not be interpreted as "determinants" of the effectiveness of schools (see Goodman et al., 1983).

Principals' and teachers' comparatively low effectiveness ratings for satisfying the non-parent community seem to constitute a matter of concern. These responses contrasted with their general perception of higher effectiveness in other areas. Either the educators in this study are less affected by their external environments than are the organizations referred to by a growing number of educational writers (e.g., Griffiths, 1987; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rosenholtz, 1985) and a long tradition of organization theorists (e.g., Schreiber, 1983; Scott, 1987; Steers, 1977), or they remain unconvinced about the crucial impact of this sector on the overall success of schools. Area superintendents, who rated overall effectiveness of schools lower, and who may be expected to have particular regard for parental as well as community opinion and satisfaction, may have been influenced to a greater extent by their perceptions of schools' mediocre performance in satisfying environmental interests other than parents. In this light, principals' current work in and capacity for negotiation, persuasion and other boundary-spanning activities to deal with community demands and interests may require careful review.

Based on the extremely low correlation of Alberta principals' responses on the junior high school preparation and overall effectiveness variables, equipping pupils for junior high school education--though this function has been effectively carried out--does not seem to be a useful measure of the overall effectiveness of elementary schools. It may be that principals do not view junior high school preparation as an important role of elementary schools--although the findings about importance of criteria suggest otherwise--or that principals assess the effectiveness of their organizations according to judgements of current performance within their own schools rather than against a referent which defies accurate performance appraisal, is future-oriented and, thereby, is a dimension of which the elementary school is largely free from direct accountability.

Pearson correlation analysis revealed many important relationships among the overall and criterion variables. Perhaps most important of all is the high inter-correlation of overall effectiveness and two predictors, maintaining an appropriate school climate and maintaining high expectations of staff. These two predictors also exhibited strong correlations with many other variables, between them accounting for correlations beyond .40 with 20 of the 38 school effectiveness variables investigated. While the school climate variable focussed attention on effectiveness in staff attitudes and behaviour as well as student attitudes and performance, the staff expectations variable related consistently with staff attitudes, practices and efficiency. A surprising feature of both criteria was their common link with one environmental dimension--that of maximizing the satisfaction of parents, a variable that also emerged as the second best predictor of the variance in overall effectiveness. Noteworthy by their absence from strong correlations with these two variables, however, were the criteria of student behavioural outcomes, environmental outcomes, the school's flexibility and environmental relations and influence. (The leadership of the principal will be dealt with separately.) Correlates of the second best predictor indicated principals' recognition of community (probably parental) support and expectations as issues to consider in investigating effectiveness. Nevertheless, correlations with the fourth predictor added no further dimensions to understanding of current overall effectiveness, and a reasonable conclusion that might be drawn from the regression and correlation analyses is that principals' judgements of overall effectiveness levels focus not so much on students' academic performance as on the behaviour of staff and the attitudes exhibited by staff members, students and their parents.

According to the survey findings from this study, small school size seems to be advantageous for effectiveness. Effectiveness also tends to be greater in schools with moderately large enrolments which may enjoy the services of many teachers and at least one vice-principal. From the positive link between principals' perceptions of school effectiveness and the number of vice-principals, it appears that effectiveness suffers where schools have no administrative assistance for principals.

Differences in the findings associated with personal differences among principals provide an initial ground for inferring that principals may--at least in their own estimation--have some considerable bearing on school effectiveness. In particular, female principals may have some desirable attributes that bear upon school effectiveness and that warrant investigation; so the comment by one female principal that "We need more women in administration" may have good foundation. If principals do have some influence on school effectiveness, then it seems that youthful leaders without prior experience in principalship might be preferred. This may have implications for administrative assignment, particularly in connection with schools where effectiveness is thought to be a problem. Furthermore, in view of the probable enthusiasm and year-long acclimatization of second-year principals, such a finding is not difficult to explain. On the other hand, a cautionary note is also in order: it may be that principals at this early stage of their careers are ill-equipped to judge the performance of their schools in many important domains and have yet to realize the more discouraging aspects of their schools' work. In addition, the relatively great variability of effectiveness ratings among first-year principals could lead to conclusion that inexperience generates in some incumbents especially positive feelings about school effectiveness and in others some measure of frustration. By the second year, principals seem to regard school effectiveness more consistently and favourably, perhaps because of a growing sense of personal control over the course of school events.

Five years of post-secondary education also seems to be a desirable attribute for principals. This is not to say that master's-level qualifications are prerequisite to improved performance of a school. Nevertheless, this is the most obvious explanation for the perceptual differences recorded here--although some observers may find other reasons, such as a biasing effect of higher education on judgements of organizational effectiveness, equally compelling.

The findings from Alberta principals about the importance of various school effectiveness criteria indicate that, contrary to a major thrust in the effective schools literature and associated school improvement initiatives (e.g., Edmonds, 1979; Lezotte, 1986), effectiveness in elementary schools appears to be as multidimensional as it is in many business organizations. In spite of some differing emphases, the Edmonton sub-study with principals, teachers and area superintendents supported this general finding. In this respect, the present study supports some prominent criticism of effective schools research (e.g., Clark et al., 1984; Fullan, 1985; Good & Brophy, 1986; Rowan et al., 1983). Hence, effort to study, evaluate and improve effectiveness according to ideological perspectives (e.g., academic education) and/or formulaic sets of criteria, while mutually reinforcing and convenient, can be regarded as simplistic. The findings from this study further show that some individuality of schools and community settings must also be respected in examining effectiveness. Hence, appraisals of schools and studies of school effectiveness need to use a range of criteria that accommodate the perspectives of relevant constituencies and that reflect the circumstances of specific organizational and environmental contexts. Only then can researchers understand the expansive, competing and paradoxical nature of organizational intents and interactions in schools and of associated guides to effectiveness; and only in this way can policy makers, principals and teachers be equipped to make informed judgements about educational purposes and practices, and evaluators be assisted to assess performance appropriately.

With regard to the importance of effectiveness criteria, two outcomes of the Edmonton comparison are of further interest. First, there was a noticeable tendency for principals to rate *most* criteria more highly than did teachers. The only explanation that can be offered for the direction of these differences is that principals may be more conscious of both the value and expansiveness of school effectiveness assessment. This finding signals a need for care in choosing constituencies to obtain criteria for effectiveness appraisal. Second, area superintendents tended to give priority to student attainment as the most important criterion of effectiveness. This criterion constitutes the organizational outcome against which external observers would most probably and most easily appraise the performance of schools--and, perhaps, of area superintendents themselves.

Based on the Alberta-wide data obtained from principals, the findings from comparisons of mean ratings on the importance and effectiveness scales indicate, on one hand, that some particularly important aspects of the work of elementary schools are being carried out to good effect. On the other hand, certain matters of considerable import may be receiving insufficient attention. The implication here is that a shift in priorities toward the domains of greatest consequence may not only improve effectiveness in those areas but, because of their critical importance, may give them prominence in the minds of observers and thereby allow them to shape perceptions of overall effectiveness, as is their potential.

Alternatively, we may conclude from the latter findings that, like the importance of facets for principals' job satisfaction, the request to rate the importance of criteria for judging school effectiveness may be intellectually unreasonable. Such a conclusion would tend to support Cameron and Whetten's (1983b) findings relating to ranking of 47 organizational effectiveness variables for relative importance. On the other hand, the invitation in the present study to consider each item independently imposed a substantially lesser cognitive burden on respondents than in that earlier inquiry. Moreover, the most prominent finding about importance--that a wide array of criteria is important for gauging the effectiveness of an elementary school--stands unchallenged by the apparent incongruity of importance and current effectiveness ratings.

Principals, teachers and area superintendents posited a wide array of seemingly important constraints on organizational effectiveness--constraints that departed from those mentioned in the small amount of literature about this subject. These constraints may be regarded in two ways. The more obvious stance is to recommend them for resolution by policy makers and administrators. Insofar as many of the constraints arise from differing views and demands of various educational constituencies, however, an alternative view might be to regard them as akin to organizational paradoxes. They may be positive forces for overall effectiveness in schools to the extent that they stimulate effort, provide challenges, maintain versatility and help to preserve balance among other conflicting aspects of schools as organizations. This is not to deny the need to dispense with unnecessary and avoidable impositions on organizational performance; but, depending upon how those problems are approached, some may have a positive by-product for overall organizational effectiveness.

Effectiveness of Principals

As in Gunn's (1984) research in senior high schools, principals in this study regarded themselves as effective leaders; none rated his or her overall performance as ineffective. Principals regarded themselves as particularly successful in areas such as behaving in an exemplary manner at school, communicating with teachers, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, and establishing a suitable work atmosphere at school. (The latter two items were also highly rated in the more limited senior high school study.) Individually low ratings by some elementary school principals and the relatively low ratings of effectiveness in boundary spanning, responding to environmental demands and functioning in some staff-related areas may highlight matters for attention by central administrators and principals themselves.

While Edmonton teachers and EPSD students and parents also considered principals to be effective, area superintendents in the two Edmonton districts rated principals consistently lower in overall effectiveness and effectiveness in all but one dimension examined. Area superintendents rated principals higher only in connection with enlisting the support of the non-parent community--and perhaps only then because principals seemed ambivalent about the importance of this responsibility.

The appearance of marked differences in the measures of dispersion for the three groups' judgements of principals also deserves note; attention is drawn to the principals who were outliers in the ratings by teachers and area superintendents. Some principals, seemingly those who were highly effective or relatively ineffective, viewed their own performance in a more moderate fashion than did the independent assessors.

All of the foregoing differences in constituencies' perceptions seem to be of consequence. They highlight matters for research attention as well as frank discussion among administrators of schools and jurisdictions.

In connection with the ratings by principals from across Alberta, one of the most interesting findings from the prediction and correlation analyses was the omission of the most effective dimension of the principal's work--exercising exemplary behaviour at school. Though an area of particular achievement for many principals, it lacked explanatory value when contemplating the functions that were responsible for the current overall performance of principals. More central to that understanding were the best predictors and strongest correlates, which highlighted regularities in individuals' perceptions of overall and criterion effectiveness. For this reason, variables such as identifying community expectations, exercising instructional leadership, promoting the achievement of school goals, and coping with uncertainty and conflicts, whose mean ratings were far from the highest, may shed most light on principals' perceptions of their overall effectiveness as leaders. Even more central is the identification of the principal's decision-making performance as both the best predictor and a relatively highly rated dimension of effectiveness for most principals.

Beyond these interpretations, however, is the most crucial finding--that all 29 dimensions of the principal's work emerged as directly or indirectly associated with overall effectiveness. In this light, principals' perceptions of their effectiveness seem to be based on performance in many areas of responsibility, so understanding of their apparent overall success could be attributed to their effective work across a range of administrative functions.

Most differences in overall effectiveness according to attributes of schools and principals were small. The statistically significant difference between public and separate school district principals, which cannot be readily explained, seems to warrant investigation. Principals with five years of post-secondary education also emerged as significantly more effective than principals with either fewer or more years of higher education background, and explanations for a probable difference among Alberta's elementary school principals are worth seeking. One possible explanation is that highly effective principals are sufficiently interested in acquiring administrative or instructional expertise to pursue graduate-level education but are more concerned to apply that knowledge in practical situations than to engage in sustained, theoretically oriented doctoral study.

Some other systematic differences in principals' perceptions of their overall effectiveness, while not statistically significant, deserve comment. Differences according to student enrolments matched the equivalent findings in respect of school effectiveness. The finding that effectiveness is greatest in moderately large schools, however, should not be construed to mean that schools should be expanded accordingly in the hope of maximizing principals' performance levels. Rather, it may be that the most effective and/or self-assured principals now hold positions in relatively larger schools. Moreover, principalship effectiveness was positively related to the number of teachers and vice-principals, and moderately large schools could be expected to have more of both kinds of personnel. Nevertheless, larger enrolments did not deter those principals from offering comparatively high ratings about their work as leaders, so planners at the system level may be well advised to give careful consideration to the size of schools and levels of professional support when matching the competencies of principals with the leadership needs of schools.

Females seem to be associated with more effective principalships as well as more effective schools. This supports findings from research cited by Bossert et al. (1982). The implications of these findings have already been noted.

With regard to career aspirations, most principals with other work ambitions aspired to positions of higher organizational or social status; hence, their perceptions of somewhat greater personal effectiveness might be expected and may reflect either a justification for those aspirations or a misplaced appraisal of the quality of their work. If the former explanation is correct, central office administrators may wish to include career aspirations as a criterion for selecting among applicants for principalships.

The association between leadership effectiveness and experience as principals seems complex, although experience in the present position may help in understanding discrepancies. The first year, an introductory one, might be expected to be associated with less-than-optimal effectiveness and some uncertainty about the performance level maintained. In the second year, the incumbent may experience greater familiarity with the job, added control, and so also greater effectiveness. The reduction in effectiveness associated with the third year is not readily explicable, nor is the sudden apparent improvement in performance among those with 4-9 years in their current positions. Other factors that vary systematically with years of experience may need to be considered to derive a suitable explanation. Interview responses about the benefit of prior experiences were of little help, although one person's association of excessive years in the job with declining effectiveness may explain the pattern of deteriorating effectiveness beyond ten years in the position.

Based on the findings about the importance of criteria, effective principalship seems to encompass many areas of responsibility; it appears to embody much more than the "instructional leadership" role that is popular among many students of effective school administration (see Murphy et al., 1983). A reasonable conclusion from the findings is that judgements about principals' effectiveness need to take into account not only a variety of staff- and student-related matters but also criteria associated with goal development and attainment, organizational adaptability, instructional technology, flexibility, as well as environmental relations and expectations. Moreover, in accordance with the contingency views of effective leadership of schools (e.g., W. Greenfield, 1986; Pitner, 1987) and other organizations (e.g., Fiedler, 1967), the choice of criteria and nature of assessment could also be expected to depend upon the circumstances in which principals are working.

Arising out of the comparisons of importance and effectiveness responses, certain aspects of the school principal's work emerge as areas for attention. If school administrators were to focus greater effort on further important aspects of their work, such as improving the performance of staff and obtaining qualified staff, then those aspects may assume greater prominence and exert a significant impact on judgements of principals' overall performance as leaders. At the same time, such incongruence in the effectiveness and importance ratings assigned to the various functions of principals could also be viewed as reinforcement of an earlier assertion that judgements about relative importance surpass the limits of human cognition and organization. Furthermore, given principals' concern about school system restraint on their involvement in staff selection for the school, there may be a need to look to jurisdictions for removal or reduction of this obstacle to principals' effectiveness in obtaining qualified and competent staff members.

Many factors emerged from this study as hindrances to principals; some have already been identified (Murphy, 1987). Undesirable personality characteristics of some principals themselves may signal a need for reappraisal of selection procedures in some jurisdictions and/or reassignment of some principals. The same may be said of unsuitable teachers. To the extent that other difficulties identified in this study--such as work and time commitments of staff, deficiences of resources, student misbehaviour, and imposition from provincial and jurisdiction administrators--cannot be eliminated, principals may at least need to be encouraged in their work. Administrative development assistance may also be appropriate for helping principals to deal with these day-to-day constraints on their work.

Relationships Among the Constructs

The two effectiveness constructs examined in this study exhibited a close association. Nevertheless, the correlational design employed does not support a conclusion about causality--that is, that the principal's effectiveness is a determinant of a school's effectiveness or vice versa. Moreover, while principals who were interviewed supported this view popularized by writers on effective schools, some critics (e.g., Bossert et al., 1982; Clark et al., 1984; Hallinger and Murphy, 1987) have emphasized that the connection, while seemingly reasonable, has frequently and unjustifiably been inferred from case study and correlational findings. It is, of course, possible that effective organizational performance is responsible for enhancing the quality of leadership. This matter seems to warrant closer research attention and is therefore considered in the implications section which follows.

Elementary school principals' job satisfaction seems to bear only weak and indirect relationships with their own effectiveness and the effectiveness of their schools--findings that contrast with the senior high school results reported by Gunn and Holdaway (1986) and with a long-standing contention by some organization theorists (e.g., Lawler & Porter, 1967, 1976) that individual satisfaction and performance are related. Of particular concern here, however, is Lawler's (1973, pp. 146-147) assertion of a *need* for satisfaction and performance to be associated:

> A strong positive relationship between satisfaction and performance indicates a reward system that is functioning well and that is rewarding good performance. On the other hand, a zero or negative relationship between satisfaction and performance indicates a poorly functioning reward system and should be taken as a signal of potential problems.

In this regard, Lawler saw implications for a loss of the better workers and for low motivation. The outcome in the present study highlights a need to explore the performance-satisfaction relationship more closely in the context of elementary school principals. Most particularly, principals do not seem to associate their extrinsic rewards with their effectiveness. Failure to recognize principals' efforts financially and in other ways may have detrimental effects on their turnover and performance, and this situation may need remedial action.

Effectiveness Paradoxes

The findings from this study included certain dimensions of *simultaneously* high effectiveness in elementary schools that were in apparent conflict. For example, consistently high effectiveness and importance ratings were obtained for the regularizing dimensions of setting and communicating school goals *as well as* for responding to changing community expectations (adaptability); for emphasizing academic subjects *as well as* maximizing the development of social skills; for enforcing behavioural rules *as well as* maximizing the development of creativity. Similarly, high ratings were assigned to the seemingly interventionist and directive activities of principals (e.g., coordinating the development of school goals, promoting goal achievement, exercising instructional leadership, improving the performance of staff, and evaluating staff) and structural impositions of principals (e.g., allocation of resources and assignment of teachers) *as well as* to collaborative planning and preparation of work by teachers. Again, all constituencies in this study perceived performance as pervasively high *despite* the need for schools to deal with an expansive array of constraining influences from all organizational and environmental sectors. There was also some concurrence in principals' and other constituents' perceptions of effectiveness across the organizational spectrum *despite* evidence of dissension about what constitutes effectiveness in respect of evaluation of students and staff turnover; and all agreed that schools were effective overall *despite* apparent disagreement about effectiveness priorities.

Based on the simultaneously high levels of attainment in opposing organizational dimensions, and recognizing that such attainment has occurred in spite of individual and competing views of effective performance, it seems reasonable to conclude that many schools in this study have coped successfully with conflicting organizational elements. Moreover, if Cameron's (1986a) view of effectiveness paradoxes is accepted, schools may even be capitalizing upon the energizing power of the conjunction of such opposing organizational foci. Schools may therefore represent a fruitful setting for investigating more closely the nature of organizational paradoxes and how they are dealt with in the pursuit of effective performance.

Multiple Constituencies' Perspectives

Further to earlier discussion of substantive differences in perceptions, the comparison of constituency perspectives provided general insights about the study of organizational effectiveness in schools.

One consistent pattern in the responses was for principals to rate their own effectiveness and that of the schools for which they were responsible more favourably than did other groups of respondents. This finding may suggest that principals have exclusive or superior knowledge of many organizational activities and achievements. Certainly, constituencies such as area superintendents and parents have less direct contact with and understanding of school decision making and activity, so, in this respect, their perceptions may be less dependable. This view finds support in the observation by attribution theorists (e.g., Jones & Nisbett, 1971; Shaver, 1975) that ignorance of contextual circumstances or events is likely to result in erroneous perceptions. When coupled with a finding that teachers also tended to rate their own performance more favourably than did other constituencies, however, an alternative explanation is equally appealing--that actors rate their performance more positively than do observers. Because teachers may also be expected to feel responsible for the quality of instruction and attitudes of students, this explanation helps to account for a tendency among teachers to assign higher school effectiveness ratings than those by area superintendents.

A second pervasive finding was for the most specific and powerful statements about constraints on effectiveness to come from those other than the alleged sources of constraint. In some respects the constituencies' differing emphases on constraining influences also reflected the attributional principle that perceivers blame the environment (other parties) for failures/problems (Hewstone, 1983; Jones & Nisbett, 1971; Shaver, 1981), although many principals blamed principals for inhibiting effectiveness, and some teachers and area superintendents criticized members of their own constituencies.

These patterns of differential perceptions indicate a need for discussion at the school and central office level. They also highlight the influence of choice of respondents on research outcomes. When principals are requested to rate the effectiveness of their schools, researchers may obtain more positive responses than might be obtained from observers who perceive themselves as having less responsibility for high organizational achievement. Teachers might be expected to assign relatively high ratings to instructional performance. Area superintendents may be particularly responsive about student attainment. Moreover, respondents' judgements may be affected by their educational priorities and by their awareness of performance in differing domains . For example, EPSD parents whose responses were examined in this study seemed to regard schools as more effective than did students. Having only intermittent and indirect contact with schools, parents may acquire and express perceptions--perhaps ones that schools are keen to present to outsiders--that are different from those of students and other constituencies whose contact is more personal and regular.

Collectively, these outcomes of the study highlight a need for researchers to incorporate and compare the views of multiple constituencies in studies of organizational effectiveness. Such a stance, although advocated by a small number of school effectiveness researchers (e.g., Good & Brophy, 1986; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Miskel, 1982b), needs to be adopted as a common investigative strategy.

Implications

This study has important implications for policy making and practice as well as for future inquiry about job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness in schools. The implications and suggestions for future research are of both a substantive and a methodological nature.

Implications for Practice

One obvious and immediate intent of job satisfaction studies is to identify facets of employees' work that need amendment. Some authors have been optimistic about this contribution. Gruneberg (1976, p. xiii), for example, argued that "studies of job satisfaction have not only shown the way forward in terms of job change, [but] they have highlighted the effect of job satisfaction on the matters of economic importance, such as absence and turnover."

On the other hand, recommendations for remediation arising from satisfaction research need to be advanced and applied with caution. As Fraser (1983, p. 56) has warned, "data pertaining to the level of job satisfaction of groups [are] . . . at best . . . statistical indices which have often little or no application to the individual." Hence, individual situations and personalities should not be subjugated in the attempt to apply ideas arising from identification of common problems; findings should instead serve as a starting point for discussion and review.

Recommendations to foster job satisfaction are also limited by the evanescent quality of job satisfaction. As Fraser (1983, p. 57) has noted,

> It would probably be naive . . . to consider that if the defined dissatisfiers were minimised and the satisfiers were maximised then a state of job satisfaction would persist. . . . the goals of work satisfaction are ephemeral and recede as they are approached. . . . the human capacity to adapt is such that were these goals ever achieved man would adapt to the new level of living, accept it as a norm, and seek still further levels of satisfaction.

In this light, practitioners should pursue the fleeting goal of optimal job satisfaction with an awareness of its worthiness of ongoing consideration but ultimate unattainability.

Beyond the generally pleasing finding that principals tend to be moderately satisfied with their jobs, a number of implications emerge from the foregoing findings. Many elementary school principals in Alberta seem dissatisfied with their workloads, working conditions, and autonomy to select and assign staff--particularly in comparison with their counterparts in senior high schools. When viewed in conjunction with some principals' dissatisfaction with liaison with central office personnel, there may be cause to review expectations of principals and the degree of professional independence granted to them.

In this regard, there may be something to learn from examining central office relationships with senior high school principals, which Gunn's (1984) research showed to be more satisfying for the principals at that level. Enhancement of principals' sense of accomplishment--a critical although conceptually elusive phenomenon--may also be aided if approached in accordance with Herzberg's (1976) interpretation. In an incisive attack on job participation and other motivational strategies over the past 50 years, Herzberg (p. 21) remarked that "The goal was to provide a *sense* of achievement rather than a substantive achievement in his task. Real achievement, of course, requires a task that makes it possible." In this light, effort to provide real accomplishment may involve a careful review of the principal's current job responsibilities and opportunities for experiencing initiative, leadership and success. This may be facilitated through, say, devolution of extensive financial control to the school level--as has already happened in some school jurisdictions in Alberta--or conferral of more substantial curriculum development discretion to principals and teachers.

An apparent disjunction between principals' extrinsic rewards and satisfaction with those job facets is also of concern. While a devolution of power to principals might enhance their feelings of fulfilment, more tangible forms of recognition may also be required. Remuneration and fringe benefits were among the least satisfying--for some dissatisfying--aspects of the job for some respondents in this study. Their perceptions of their own effectiveness were also virtually unrelated to their levels of satisfaction with extrinsic rewards. These findings seem to have implications for financial planning at the provincial and jurisdiction levels.

Superintendents of schools may also find benefit in investigating job satisfaction in their own school systems. Not only can a job satisfaction questionnaire become "a powerful instrument for looking at employee problems" (Davis, 1977, pp. 79-80), and not only would such central office initiatives focus attention on needs and concerns in specific school contexts, but the act of inquiry itself should serve as an expression of administrative interest in the attitudes and well-being of principals and teachers. Improved cooperation and communication between schools and central offices could be expected to result.

The findings from the investigation of organizational and administrative effectiveness have drawn attention to the comprehensive focus required if educational reform is to be adequately addressed. Educational policy making needs to take into account the effects of change on environmental influences and expectations as well as on the delicately balanced elements that comprise schools as social organizations. Hence, the Management and Finance Plan strategy requirement of extensive formal evaluation of personnel and programs in Alberta's schools, for example, may assist the effectiveness of academic instruction but at the expense of morale, satisfaction and interpersonal interaction between principals and teachers. Effort to enhance the effectiveness of schools should therefore take into account the repercussions of change on administration, instructional practice, and attitudes throughout and beyond the organizational setting.

Effort to make schools more effective must also deal with organizational resistance to change. To the extent that schools and school systems are loosely coupled (Weick, 1976) and to the extent that the "logic of confidence" in teachers' competence (Meyer & Rowan, 1978) continues to guarantee educators some professional independence, central initiatives can be buffered from influencing organizational events. This applies as much to strategies for improving effectiveness as to any other reforms. Rossmiller's (1986, p. 11) conclusion that "significant change in [the effectiveness of] schools is unlikely to be accomplished by fiat" thus seems to be warranted. As Purkey and Smith (1983) and

Bossert et al. (1982) have noted, attitudinal change (e.g., development of an appropriate school climate) may be especially difficult. In that light, attention may best be directed at the individual and organizational levels. One beginning might be to engage the support of dominant coalitions and influential individuals within the school setting. Bossert et al. (1982) also commended control over resources, and public commendation and protection of desired behaviours.

One cost of focussing attention on the recipe-like findings of the effective schools research is that resources (time and energy) of staff members are necessarily diverted from other less prominent yet arguably important areas of responsibility. Rowan et al. (1983) alerted researchers and practitioners to this problem by indicating that other organization members would have to assume administrative duties if principals were to engage in instructional management. The multiplicity of important dimensions of effectiveness highlighted by this study calls into question the current preoccupation with instructional leadership by principals and teachers.

One important contribution of this study arose out of its emphasis on general dimensions of effective organizational performance (e.g., maximizing achievement in mathematics) rather than on predetermined standards (e.g., 80% pass rate at grade 12) and prespecified activities (e.g., demonstration of creative writing methods). The study deliberately stopped short of the "interventionist" style of research now pursued by some educational investigators (e.g., Achilles & Lintz, 1986) in which specific strategies and behaviours are implemented and tested quasi-experimentally in the hope of identifying "effective" techniques for general application. The position taken here was that many effectiveness criteria are only subjectively assessable and that judgements of quality are dependent upon circumstance and the constituencies and individuals whose perceptions are sought. Hence, prescription of performance standards and concrete behaviours was regarded as arbitrary and therefore undesirable. In addition, it is arguably preferable to furnish professional practitioners with the tools for gauging and improving organizational effectiveness (knowledge of important dimensions and of their own and others' assessments of current performance) rather than imposing blueprints for action (arbitrarily and/or consensually determined performance standards and universal prescriptions of "correct" behaviour). Effort to identify the latter seems to be inappropriate for such interpersonal organizational settings as schools and for leadership which is contingent upon organizational dynamics. In this light, the present study has drawn attention to many areas of a school's work in which performance might usefully be assessed and has produced diagnostic instruments which may assist central office and school administrators to make judgements and improvements in performance in individual situations.

The attention given to alternative views of effectiveness in this study may also be of assistance to practitioners. As Enns (1968) has noted, mere recognition of differing perspectives is important for educational administrators. Furthermore, this investigation has identified points of disagreement and differing emphases among three educational constituencies. Practitioners may find in those results a basis for administrative intervention to integrate the discrepant perceptions. More realistically, the findings may provide a stimulus and initial framework for discussion of effectiveness and other educational issues among district administrators, school-based personnel, students and parental and community interests. This kind of communication has a potential for expanding practitioners' understanding of extant effectiveness and for planning appropriate reforms.

The findings have emphasized the important place of the organizational environment in school events and evaluations of effective performance. Educators and administrators can no longer view decision making and planning in the context of schools as closed systems but instead must be responsive to the external demands and interests of central and provincial authorities, parents and other influential groups in the local and wider community. In view of extensive public criticism of education over recent years, this matter has become a concern not only for principals but for their superordinates at the school system and departmental levels. One problem unresolved by this research is the development of a suitable strategy for dealing with the educational environment. In this light, Gollner's (1983, pp. 29, 3) criticism of business and other organizational leaders may be helpful. He argued that most managers have persisted with traditional, "reactive" strategies in dealing with their environments rather than taking a "proactive" or "interactive" stance. Instead, "the challenge . . . is to be able to *anticipate* and *harness* environmental change, and to *participate* creatively in the shaping of those forces that will affect the future." In the context of education, this might involve active involvement in community and institutional affairs rather than mere adaptation to externally developed expectations.

Implications and Recommendations for Research

In turning from practical to research implications, one preliminary observation should be made. It may be unrealistic to expect that outcomes of studies such as this will have a direct and immediate impact on decision making at the policy, district and/or school level. As Holdaway (1986) recently observed, there is a common concern at the failure of research to have more than a "fragmented impact" on educational policy--a disjunction that he attributed to time constraints, decision makers' personal preferences, the short time frames of policy makers, and the *un*surprising nature of many research findings. More important, however, may be the long-term reforms arising out of what Holdaway (p. 255) saw as a study's capacity "to provide different conceptions, to reformulate problems, to furnish new insights, to sharpen perceptions, and to stimulate discussion and questioning." In that sense, immediate practical implications may be of less consequence than the impetus that a study can give to further productive inquiry. In this light, even if the findings from this study do no more than "make the obvious obvious" (Wolcott, 1985, p. 193), the major findings--such as that extant effectiveness inquiry seems to have been excessively limited--may have more far-reaching implications for the study and practice of educational administration.

The programmatic aspect of this study was a contribution to systematic advancement of knowledge about job satisfaction. As noted in the review of literature, job satisfaction research has been criticized for the piecemeal, non-cumulative manner in which it has been conducted, as has research in educational administration in general. To the extent that this study was replicatory, it provided evidence of attitudes that seem to be distinctive to or consistent across organization types. In that sense, it highlights the benefits of that kind of investigation and helps to advance knowledge in cumulative fashion.

At the same time, if researchers are to understand more fully the nature of workers' life satisfaction and quality of life, research attention may need to be directed beyond cross-sectional studies of job satisfaction and work motivation. As Fraser (1983, p. 20) has noted, the traditional view that individuals' major fulfilment arises from the workplace is now being questioned. Indeed, Headey and Wearing's (1981) study demonstrated the limited importance of job satisfaction for many persons' overall feelings of well-being. Studies by Blase and Pajak (1986) and other researchers have likewise established the interactive nature of work and personal experiences, and Fraser (1983, p. 63) has lamented a lack of attention to "social and biological influences such as ethnic background, cultural habit patterns, either local or general, age and sex [that] may have an influence on one's perception of job satisfaction." Hence, future investigators may need to turn to more pervasive studies of educators' and others' work as well as personal lives, experiences and desires. They may also find it useful to consider attitudinal changes over time in response to changes in personal and workplace conditions.

The study of effective schools and, more particularly, effective school leadership also has implications for research and instruction in university departments of educational administration. As Hatley (1988, p. 6) recently observed, two guiding purposes for the University Council on Educational Administration at its inception were "the advancement of knowledge about effective leadership of schools and the improvement of preparation programs for school administrators." By contributing to the body of knowledge about effective principalship, research such as the present can inform the design and development of preparation programs for principals and other educational administrators. This study, for example, has highlighted a range of matters that require attention: decision making, instructional direction, evaluation of staff and other administrative tasks; interaction with teachers, students, parents, central office administrators and other constituencies; and instigation of change and response to external demand, uncertainty and constraint. Leadership theory has made reference to many similar kinds of attributes. It has also drawn attention to the contingency aspect of leadership and, consequently, educational research and instruction need to focus on how leadership styles should be matched with circumstances to greatest effect. Other research (Stevens & Marsh, 1987) has examined proactive and reactive management styles and their implications for successful organizational administration; and, likewise, if understanding and the practice of educational administration are to be advanced, effort needs to be expended on inquiry in this domain.

This study has highlighted the expansiveness and complexity of educational leadership--a matter that requires much more concerted and systematic investigation if the quality of principalship and administrative preparation and in-service development are to be improved. In the meantime, practitioners need to be informed of this extant limitation on research knowledge. Principals, central administrators and policy makers may be relying unduly heavily upon the mutually corroboratory and convenient effective schools findings as guides for policy making and practice. Their views of organizational and leadership effectiveness in schools may need to be broadened to admit alternative viewpoints about effectiveness (e.g., community expectations) and additional administrative/organizational responsibilities and skills (e.g., interacting with parents, examining differing conceptions of "orderliness," and dealing with simultaneously desirable but contradictory organizational attributes).

Pitner's (1987, p. 109) call for longitudinal study of "the effect of leaders on organizations" is a particularly important one, for there remains a need to establish causality and the effects of administrative and organizational action in schools. At the same time, research reports all too frequently conclude with glib recommendations for studies far exceeding their own in scope. Commendation of that proposal therefore needs to be tempered with the observation that such inquiry may not be appropriate for doctoral study.

Another seemingly important area of inquiry is the matter of personal, organizational and environmental constraints on organizational effectiveness. This study has highlighted their relevance for the effectiveness of schools and principals and has drawn attention to specific factors that seem to impede progress in many contexts. For this reason, some of the current focus of attention on effective strategies for schools may be better directed toward identification and confirmation of the nature of those constraints, and toward examination of how schools and principals deal with those problems. In this way, practitioners at the levels of the school, jurisdiction and provincial administration could be advised about barriers needing policy and practical attention and about possible directions for improvement.

The temporal problem of changing effectiveness criteria also needs to be considered in future research, for different criteria seem to assume importance for constituencies over the life cycle of organizations (Cameron, 1986a). By way of example, new schools might pursue innovativeness and distinctive educational ends, whereas well-established schools may regard maintenance of tradition and survival as primary concerns. Changing societal values and advances in research about teaching may also alter views of the purposes of schooling and, hence, of effective performance. For example, an apparent societal emphasis on the individual prerogative now seems to be giving way to organizational imposition and accountability for achievement of predetermined, measurable goals; in future, this may in turn be supplanted by a general priority on professional obligation and commitment. Effectiveness theories and criteria need to be adapted accordingly.

Future research will also need to deal with the troublesome issue of whether to judge effectiveness only according to achievement of planned educational "outcomes" or whether to consider also unintended societal "effects" (see Cameron, 1986a) such as illiteracy, interpersonal ineptitude or incapacity for reflective thinking. To date, these issues have not been adequately examined.

One useful and largely unexplored realm of effectiveness might be to study in detail the extent, nature and effects of paradoxical aspects of organizational life. For example, it would be helpful to know whether and how principals juggle conflicting demands and other aspects of organizational existence in order to promote overall effectiveness in schools. As Cameron (1986a) advised, such inquiry may need to be directed through investigation of disconfirming statistical findings (outliers and variances) and examination of individual perspectives using qualitative methodologies.

Perception theory has shown that respondents' personal and experiential backgrounds exert powerful influences on their perceptions and explanations of social events. This study's attention to the viewpoints of multiple constituencies and of individual respondents has highlighted the presence of some of these discrepancies. This emphasizes the importance of such an approach to inquiry in educational administration. Clearly, understanding of school effectiveness is dependent not only upon performance but upon the respondents whose perspectives are used as the basis of measurement. Few effective schools researchers seem to have given this matter the attention it deserves, and knowledge could be expected to profit greatly from such an emphasis. The present study may provide methodological assistance in this regard.

As noted in Chapter 2, many effectiveness researchers have failed to consciously specify the time, conceptual and other constraints on inquiry. Ambiguous definitions and criteria and noncumulative and ungeneralizable research have been associated problems. This study has sought to address these difficulties by recording the boundaries of the investigation, by locating it within a metaphorical perspective, by building upon prior research in a way that will permit comparison of findings across organizational types, and by using sample data that brought external validity to many of the findings. Such overt delimitation and focus of the study may highlight the importance of this approach to investigation of organizational effectiveness in education and may thereby contribute to future clarity and purpose in this kind of inquiry.

Reliance upon perceptual data was regarded as a further strength of the methodology used in this study. Perceptual data are necessarily subject to the personal and constituency biases of respondents; they also ignore supposedly objective measures of performance. On the other hand, such an approach avoids the need to rely upon standardized test results--a convenient but inadequate indicator of student attainment and organizational performance--that limits the contribution of many school effectiveness studies. It also circumvents a fundamental shortcoming of descriptive studies of effective schools, for they commonly examine only outlier, allegedly effective schools and principals, with little assurance that these are effective on a comprehensive array of criteria and that their circumstances are reasonably representative of those in other schools. By relying upon perceptual data, the danger of distinctive circumstances influencing the results can be minimized by acquiring perceptions from schools across the geographical regions of concern. Such an approach to effectiveness research therefore seems to be desirable.

The combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques in this study was also found to be useful and may be recommended for subsequent inquiry in many domains of educational research. Of particular merit in some circumstances may be the sequential strategy used here--of exploratory examination of constructs followed by confirmatory research and then focussed follow-up investigation of unresolved questions and important issues.

An associated benefit of combining research methods relates to the matter of interpretation of consistent and divergent findings. As has been argued elsewhere (Silverman, 1985), concurrence of outcomes may demonstrate to a positivist the validity of the findings, although an interpretive explanation might be that this merely signals a point of perceptual consensus. Collection and statistical analysis of quantifiable data provided an important guide to patterns in the perceptions (although the variability of perceptions was also considered). At the same time, it also permitted comparison of the perspectives of different educational constituencies, thereby identifying important and recurring points of perceptual difference as well as agreement.

In this way, the research findings may be read in accordance with readers' own orientations. Those who regard reality as a strictly objective, measurable state may accept the considerable concurrence of perceptions among constituencies as validating the findings from principals as indicators of reality in elementary schools in the province; many of the interview findings may also be seen to corroborate and extend knowledge about that reality. Alternatively, those who regard reality as individual may draw from the interview findings, in particular, understanding of shared and distinctive views and experiences of individuals associated with selected elementary schools. A third view, akin to that of this researcher, would be to see in the findings confirmation of the extent to which cultural and organizational socialization influences individual attitudes. This study revealed dimensions of elementary school life that exhibited extensive concurrence of perception as well as dimensions that displayed shared opinion according to organizational status and circumstance. The presence of some variability in those perceptions and, more particularly, the individuality of interview respondents' deeper understandings of satisfaction and effectiveness also demonstrated that perceptions of individuals are far from unified. Clearly, it was only by combining qualitative and quantitative methodological features that such opposing orientations of readers could be accommodated in a single research initiative.

The contribution of this study to research also needs to be placed in ideological perspective. As an inquiry premised on the systems tradition, the criteria developed and examined and the resultant findings can inform only in respect of that organizational perspective. For example, no attention was given to the question of powerful constituencies and their views of effectiveness which researchers such as Cameron (1986b) have found to be useful for understanding effectiveness in institutions of higher education. There remains a need, then, to re-examine school effectiveness also from competing perspectives, by drawing upon alternative metaphors for viewing organizations, effectiveness and attitudes.

Concluding Remarks

The justification for studying job satisfaction has kept pace with the shift from a manipulative human relations view of management and organization theory to a modern societal concern for individual rights and the quality of work and personal lives. In consequence, it remains as important as ever.

Organizational effectiveness will always occupy the attention of administrators, clients and researchers. Whether it is studied or not, administrators will continue to make assessments of organizational performance and other interested parties will continue to assess the quality of administrators' work. Researchers therefore have an obligation to pursue understanding of the effectiveness construct, partly in order to help practitioners judge and improve effectiveness in organizations.

Over recent decades, scholars in a variety of social science disciplines have recognized differing philosophical standpoints and have developed and debated new metaphorical images for examining organizational existence. As those alternative views come to be reflected in research designs, and as the complementariness of those viewpoints gains credence, researchers may expect to acquire a fuller knowledge of the subtle, complex nature of life in schools and other organizations.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SCHEDULE FOR PRELIMINARY INTERVIEWS OF SUPERINTENDENTS, PRINCIPALS, TEACHERS AND PARENTS

SCHEDULE FOR PRELIMINARY INTERVIEWS OF SUPERINTENDENTS, PRINCIPALS, TEACHERS AND PARENTS

For Principals Only

1. What aspects of an elementary school principal's work provide the most job satisfaction?

2. In prior research, some respondents have stated that "sense of accomplishment" is a source of job satisfaction. What do you understand by the term "sense of accomplishment," as it relates to elementary school principals?

For All Respondents

3. What major criteria would you use to assess the effectiveness of an elementary school?

4. What factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary schools?

5. What major criteria would you use to judge an elementary school *principal's* effectiveness?

6. What factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary school principals?

7. How important is the elementary school principal's effectiveness for attaining overall school effectiveness?

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES FOR PRINCIPALS, TEACHERS AND AREA SUPERINTENDENTS

PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPALS OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS, THEIR ROLE, AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

SCHOOL DATA

Please check (√) the appropriate answer. — Office Use Only

1. Which of the following best describes the setting of your school? — (1) 1-5

   (1) rural ____ (3) city ____ — 6

   (2) town ____ (4) other (please specify) ______________________

2. In which type of school system is your school located?

   (1) county ____ (3) separate school district ____ — 7

   (2) public school district ____ (4) school division ____

3. What grades are in your school? (Please check all.)

   Kindergarten ____ Grade 1 ____ Grade 2 ____ Grade 3 ____ Grade 4 ____ Grade 5 ____ — 8-15

   Grade 6 ____ Elementary Special Education ____

4. How many students are enrolled in your elementary school in Grades 1-6? ____ — 16-18

5. How many full-time equivalent certificated teachers are employed in your school? (Include the principal and deputy/assistant/vice-principals.) ____ — 19-21

6. How many deputy/assistant/vice-principals are employed in your school? ____ — 22

PERSONAL DATA

7. What is your sex? (1) female ____ (2) male ____ — 23

8. What was your age on 1 January 1986?

   (1) under 30 ____ (4) 50-59 ____ — 24

   (2) 30-39 ____ (5) 60 or older ____

   (3) 40-49 ____

9. To which position do you aspire in your long-term career plans? (Please check one.) — 25

   (1) Principalship ____

   (2) Assistant superintendent ____

   (3) Consultant or coordinator at the central office ____

   (4) Teaching position in a college or university ____

   (5) Superintendent/chief executive officer ____

   (6) Position in Department of Education ____

   (7) Other (please specify) ______________________

10. For how many years have you been in your present position? (Count the present year as a full year.) ____ — 26-27

Office Use Only

11. How many years of experience as a principal did you have before attaining your present position? ____ 28-29

12. How many years of post-secondary education (as assessed for salary purposes) have you completed? ____ 30

OPINIONS

13.(a) Do you believe that principals should be given a term appointment, after which they may be given another term as principal if their performance has been satisfactory?

1. Yes ____ 2. No ____ 3. Undecided ____ 31

(b) If "Yes," how long do you believe that the term appointment should be? ____ years. 32-33

14. In your opinion, what is the desirable number of students in an elementary school (Grades 1-6) which would allow for breadth of program, flexibility, efficiency, and effective interaction among administrators, teachers, and students? ____ students. 34-37

15. In your opinion, what one aspect contributes most to elementary school principals' influence on goal achievement? ____________________ 38-39

ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Please rate your level of involvement in each of the areas listed below, according to the following scale:

None	Low	Medium	High
1	2	3	4

Circle the selected number.

(a)	Formal evaluation of teachers	1	2	3	4	40
(b)	Informal developmental evaluation of teachers	1	2	3	4	41
(c)	Hiring of teachers	1	2	3	4	42
(d)	Development of curricula/programs	1	2	3	4	43
(e)	Evaluation of instructional programs	1	2	3	4	44
(f)	Management of instructional resources	1	2	3	4	45
(g)	Management of non-instructional resources	1	2	3	4	46
(h)	Development of school budget	1	2	3	4	47
(i)	Management of school finances	1	2	3	4	48
(j)	Operation of school building--physical aspects	1	2	3	4	49
(k)	Supervision of student behavior	1	2	3	4	50
(l)	Maintenance of student records	1	2	3	4	51
(m)	Development of school-community relations	1	2	3	4	52
(n)	Development of system-wide policies at the district/division/ county level	1	2	3	4	53

JOB SATISFACTION

Please assess the importance of each of the following work factors for job satisfaction of elementary school principals, using this scale:

Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Extremely Important
N	S	M	E

Please also assess your degree of satisfaction with each work factor, using this scale:

Highly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Highly Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the selected letter and number.

Work Factor	Importance for Job Satisfaction	Your Satisfaction	Office Use Only
Working Conditions			
1. The way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in the school system	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	54,55
2. The salary the principal receives	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	56,57
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	58,59
4. Quality of custodial services in the school	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	60,61
5. The number of hours the principal is required to work	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	62,63
6. The principal's physical working conditions	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	64,65
7. Availability of clerical staff to assist the principal	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	66,67
Personnel-Related Matters			
8. The principal's working relationships with teachers	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	68,69
9. The principal's social relationships with teachers	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	70,71
10. The teaching competence of teachers	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	72,73
11. The competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	74,75 (2) 1-5
12. Attitudes of teachers toward ongoing professional improvement	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	6,7
13. The help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	8,9
14. Attitudes of teachers toward change	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	10,11
15. Satisfaction and morale of the staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	12,13
Student-Related Matters			
16. The principal's relationships with students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	14,15
17. The attitudes of students toward education	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	16,17
18. Satisfaction and morale of students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	18,19
19. Achievement of students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	20,21
Role-Related Matters			
20. The principal's freedom to change the school program	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	22,23
21. The principal's freedom to allocate teaching assignments	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	24,25
22. The principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	26,27

Work Factor	Importance for Job Satisfaction	Your Satisfaction	Office Use Only
23. Authority associated with the principal's position	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	28,29
24. The principal's involvement in budget preparation	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	30,31
25. The principal's responsibility for formal teacher evaluation	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	32,33
District-Related Matters			
26. The principal's relationship with the superintendent	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	34,35
27. The principal's relationships with other central office staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	36,37
28. The principal's involvement in decision making at the district/ division/ county level	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	38,39
29. Availability of useful advice to assist the principal with problems	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	40,41
30. Opportunities for useful in-service education for the principal	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	42,43
31. Expectations of the school board for the principal	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	44,45
32. The methods used to evaluate principals	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	46,47
33. Attitudes of school board administrators toward teachers and administrators	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	48,49
Occupation-Related Matters			
34. Attitudes of parents toward the school	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	50,51
35. The principal's social position in the community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	52,53
36. Achievement of the principal's own professional objectives	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	54,55
37. The principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	56,57
38. Recognition by others of the principal's work	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	58,59
39. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	60,61
40. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	62,63
41. Successful completion of projects and tasks	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	64,65
Other Factors			
42. Other work factors contributing to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that are not identified above (please specify)			
(a) ______________________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
(b) ______________________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
(c) ______________________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
Overall Job Satisfaction			
43. Your overall feeling of satisfaction with your job	———	1 2 3 4 5 6	66

SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Please assess the importance of each of the following work factors for achieving school effectiveness in elementary schools, using this scale:

Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Extremely Important
N	S	M	E

Please also assess the effectiveness of your school on each work factor, using this scale:

Highly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Slightly Ineffective	Slightly Effective	Moderately Effective	Highly Effective
1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the selected letter and number.

	Work Factor	Importance for School Effectiveness	Effectiveness of Your School	Office Use Only (3) 1-5
1.	Setting school goals	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	6,7
2.	Communicating school goals to students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	8,9
3.	Maintaining high expectations of students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	10,11
4.	Preparing students for the junior high school program	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	12,13
5.	Emphasizing academic subjects	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	14,15
6.	Encouraging academic success	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	16,17
7.	Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	18,19
8.	Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	20,21
9.	Maximizing achievement in mathematics	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	22,23
10.	Maximizing development of important social skills	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	24,25
11.	Maximizing development of creativity	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	26,27
12.	Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	28,29
13.	Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	30,31
14.	Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	32,33
15.	Enforcing behavioral rules among students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	34,35
16.	Maintaining an appropriate school climate	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	36,37
17.	Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	38,39
18.	Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	40,41
19.	Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	42,43
20.	Maintaining low turnover of staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	44,45
21.	Maintaining high expectations of staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	46,47
22.	Displaying staff commitment to the school	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	48,49
23.	Showing a high level of staff motivation	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	50,51
24.	Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	52,53
25.	Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	54,55
26.	Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	56,57

	Work Factor	Importance for School Effectiveness	Effectiveness of Your School	Office Use Only
27.	Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	58,59
28.	Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	60,61
29.	Using appropriate teaching methods	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	62,63
30.	Making efficient use of staff time	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	64,65
31.	Making efficient use of resources	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	66,67
32.	Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	68,69
33.	Taking advantage of staffing changes	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	70,71
34.	Responding to changing community expectations	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	72,73
35.	Maintaining communication with the community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	74,75 (4) 1-5
36.	Obtaining support from the community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	6,7
37.	Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	8,9
38.	Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	10,11
39.	Displaying leadership by the principal	N S M E	————	12
40.	Other work factors contributing to school effectiveness that are not identified above (please specify)			
	(a) ______________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(b) ______________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(c) ______________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
41.	The overall effectiveness of your school	————	1 2 3 4 5 6	13

42. Which factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary schools?

(a) ______________________________________

(b) ______________________________________

(c) ______________________________________

EFFECTIVENESS OF PRINCIPALS

Please assess the importance of each of the following work factors for the effectiveness of elementary school principals, using this scale:

Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Extremely Important
N	S	M	E

Please also assess your effectiveness as a leader on each work factor, using this scale:

Highly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Slightly Ineffective	Slightly Effective	Moderately Effective	Highly Effective
1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the selected letter and number.

	Work Factor	Importance for Principals' Effectiveness	Your Effectiveness	Office Use Only
1.	Coordinating the development of school goals	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	14,15
2.	Publicizing school goals	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	16,17
3.	Promoting the achievement of school goals	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	18,19
4.	Exercising instructional leadership	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	20,21
5.	Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	22,23
6.	Improving the performance of staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	24,25
7.	Evaluating staff members	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	26,27
8.	Providing feedback to staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	28,29
9.	Communicating with staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	30,31
10.	Encouraging high expectations of students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	32,33
11.	Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	34,35
12.	Promoting high expectations among staff members	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	36,37
13.	Fostering high morale among staff and students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	38,39
14.	Communicating with students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	40,41
15.	Obtaining qualified staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	42,43
16.	Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	44,45
17.	Allocating resources	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	46,47
18.	Coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	48,49
19.	Coping with uncertainty and conflict	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	50,51
20.	Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	52,53
21.	Fostering the professional growth of staff members	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	54,55
22.	Exercising exemplary behaviour at school	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	56,57
23.	Increasing the job satisfaction of staff members	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	58,59
24.	Working with teachers to develop or change policies	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	60,61
25.	Identifying community expectations	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	62,63
26.	Adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	64,65

	Work Factor	Importance for Principals' Effectiveness	Your Effectiveness	Office Use Only
27.	Communicating with community groups	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	66,67
28.	Enlisting the support of parents	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	68,69
29.	Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	70,71
30.	Other work factors contributing to effectiveness of principals that are not identified above (please specify)			
	(a) ____________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(b) ____________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(c) ____________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
31.	Your overall effectiveness as a leader	———	1 2 3 4 5 6	72

32. Which factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary school principals?

(a) ____

(b) ____

(c) ____

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

Please add any comments that you wish to make on the topics of job satisfaction, school effectiveness, and principal effectiveness, as these relate to elementary schools. (Use reverse side if necessary.)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

	Work Factor	Importance for Principals' Effectiveness	Your Effectiveness	Office Use Only
27.	Communicating with community groups	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	66,67
28.	Enlisting the support of parents	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	68,69
29.	Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	70,71
30.	Other work factors contributing to effectiveness of principals that are not identified above (please specify)			
	(a) ______________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(b) ______________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(c) ______________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
31.	Your overall effectiveness as a leader	———	1 2 3 4 5 6	72

32. Which factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary school principals?

(a) ______________________________

(b) ______________________________

(c) ______________________________

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

Please add any comments that you wish to make on the topics of job satisfaction, school effectiveness, and principal effectiveness, as these relate to elementary schools. (Use reverse side if necessary.)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

If you would be prepared to assist with a brief interview about some of the matters raised in this questionnaire, please check (√) the box below. (All responses will be strictly confidential.)

[ ]

School Code #: 73-75

ASSESSMENTS BY TEACHERS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Please assess the importance of each of the following work factors for achieving school effectiveness in elementary schools, using this scale:

Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Extremely Important
N	S	M	E

Please also assess the effectiveness of your school on each work factor, using this scale:

Highly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Slightly Ineffective	Slightly Effective	Moderately Effective	Highly Effective
1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the selected letter and number.

	Work Factor	Importance for School Effectiveness	Effectiveness of Your School	Office Use Only (5) 1-5
1.	Setting school goals	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	6,7
2.	Communicating school goals to students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	8,9
3.	Maintaining high expectations of students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	10,11
4.	Preparing students for the junior high school program	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	12,13
5.	Emphasizing academic subjects	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	14,15
6.	Encouraging academic success	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	16,17
7.	Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	18,19
8.	Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	20,21
9.	Maximizing achievement in mathematics	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	22,23
10.	Maximizing development of important social skills	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	24,25
11.	Maximizing development of creativity	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	26,27
12.	Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	28,29
13.	Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	30,31
14.	Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	32,33
15.	Enforcing behavioral rules among students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	34,35
16.	Maintaining an appropriate school climate	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	36,37
17.	Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	38,39
18.	Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	40,41
19.	Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	42,43
20.	Maintaining low turnover of staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	44,45
21.	Maintaining high expectations of staff	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	46,47
22.	Displaying staff commitment to the school	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	48,49
23.	Showing a high level of staff motivation	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	50,51
24.	Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	52,53
25.	Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	54,55
26.	Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	56,57

	Work Factor	Importance for School Effectiveness	Effectiveness of Your School	Office Use Only
27.	Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	58,59
28.	Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	60,61
29.	Using appropriate teaching methods	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	62,63
30.	Making efficient use of staff time	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	64,65
31.	Making efficient use of resources	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	66,67
32.	Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	68,69
33.	Taking advantage of staffing changes	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	70,71
34.	Responding to changing community expectations	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	72,73
35.	Maintaining communication with the community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	74,75 (6) 1-5
36.	Obtaining support from the community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	6,7
37.	Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	8,9
38.	Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	10,11
39.	Displaying leadership by the principal	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	12,13
40.	Other work factors contributing to school effectiveness that are not identified above (please specify)			
	(a) ____________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(b) ____________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(c) ____________________	N S M E	1 2 3 4 5 6	
41.	The overall effectiveness of your school	————	1 2 3 4 5 6	14

42. Which factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary schools?

(a) ______________________________

(b) ______________________________

(c) ______________________________

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

Please add any comments that you wish to make on the topic of effectiveness of elementary schools. (Use reverse side if necessary.)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

....

School Code #: 15-17

ASSESSMENTS BY AREA SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SELECTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

For each school listed, please assess its effectiveness on each of the following work factors, using this scale:

Highly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Slightly Ineffective	Slightly Effective	Moderately Effective	Highly Effective
1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the selected number.

	School Effectiveness Work Factor	School Code #______	School Code #______	School Code #______	School Code #______	Office Use Only (7) 1-5 6-26
1.	Setting school goals	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	27-33
2.	Communicating school goals to students	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	34-40
3.	Maintaining high expectations of students	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	41-47
4.	Emphasizing academic subjects	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	48-54
5.	Maximizing academic achievement	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	55-61
6.	Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	62-68
7.	Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	69-75
8.	Maintaining an appropriate school climate	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	(8) 1-5 6-12
9.	Acknowledging staff and student achievements	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	13-19
10.	Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	20-26
11.	Maintaining high expectations of staff	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	27-33
12.	Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	34-40
13.	Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	41-47
14.	Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	48-54
15.	Using appropriate teaching methods	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	55-61
16.	Taking advantage of staffing changes	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	62-68
17.	Responding to changing community expectations	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	69-75
18.	Obtaining support from the community	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	(9) 1-5 6-12
19.	Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	13-19
20.	Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	20-26
21.	Other work factors contributing to school effectiveness that are not identified above (please specify)					
	(a) ____________________	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(b) ____________________	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	
	(c) ____________________	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	
22.	Overall school effectiveness	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	27-33

For each school listed, please assess the effectiveness of the principal on the following factors:

Principal Effectiveness Work Factor	School Code #	School Code #	School Code #	School Code #	Office Use Only
23. Coordinating the development of school goals	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	34-40
24. Publicizing school goals	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	41-47
25. Exercising instructional leadership	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	48-54
26. Improving the performance of staff	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	55-61
27. Evaluating staff members	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	62-68
28. Providing feedback to staff	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	69-75 (10) 1-5
29. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	6-12
30. Obtaining qualified staff	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	13-19
31. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	20-26
32. Allocating resources	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	27-33
33. Enlisting the support of parents	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	34-40
34. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	41-47
35. Other work factors contributing to effectiveness of principals that are not identified above (please specify)					
(a) ____________________	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	
(b) ____________________	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	
(c) ____________________	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	
36. Overall effectiveness as a leader	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	48-54

37. What are the three most important criteria for judging the effectiveness of an elementary school? Please list in order of importance, from 1 to 3.

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

38. What are the three most important criteria for judging the effectiveness of a principal of an elementary school? Please list in order of importance, from 1 to 3.

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

Office
Use Only

39. How important is the principal's effectiveness for attaining overall effectiveness in elementary schools? Please circle one letter.

N	S	M	E	55
(Not Important)	(Slightly Important)	(Moderately Important)	(Extremely Important)	

40. In your opinion, what one aspect contributes most to elementary school principals' influence on goal achievement? ____________________ 56-57

41. Which factors most inhibit the effectiveness of elementary schools?

(a) ____________________

(b) ____________________

(c) ____________________

42. In what major ways (if any) do the criteria of effectiveness differ among elementary, junior high, and senior high schools?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

....

Area Superintendent #: 58

School District #: 59

APPENDIX C

SCHEDULE FOR FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS OF PRINCIPALS

SCHEDULE FOR FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS OF PRINCIPALS

Eighty-five percent of the elementary school principals in the Alberta sample completed the questionnaire, "Perceptions of Principals of School Effectiveness, their Role and their Job Satisfaction." Analysis of these responses led to the following questions, which are intended to provide further insight about the important issues of effectiveness and job satisfaction.

At the outset of this interview, I wish to assure you of the anonymity of your responses. If any question is unclear, please ask me to rephrase it or to clarify its meaning or purpose.

---

1. What gives you the most satisfaction as an elementary school principal?

2. What gives you the most dissatisfaction as an elementary school principal?

3. In the questionnaire (and in prior research) some respondents stated that "sense of accomplishment" is an important source of job satisfaction.
   (a) As an elementary school principal, what does "sense of accomplishment" mean to you?
   (b) What aspects of your work contribute most to your sense of accomplishment?
   (c) How would you distinguish "sense of accomplishment" from "job satisfaction"?

4. The job facets that principals saw as *most important* for their satisfaction were:
   - Principals' working relationships with teachers;
   - The teaching competence of teachers.

   Of *least importance* for principals' satisfaction were:
   - Principals' social standing in the community;
   - Principals' social relationships with teachers.

   Are these ratings surprising? What explanations or observations do you have about them?

---

5. In your opinion, what is the prime indicator of the effectiveness of an elementary school?

6. An important aspect of school effectiveness to emerge from the questionnaire responses was "maintaining an appropriate school climate." What kind of climate do you consider to be "appropriate" for achieving effectiveness in an elementary school?

7. Principals' ratings of the *most important* criteria for judging school effectiveness were:
    - Satisfaction, morale, high expectations, and achievement, of students;
    - Maintaining an appropriate school climate;
    - Morale, achievement, and appropriate teaching methods, of staff;
    - Leadership by the principal.

   Least important were:
    - Maximizing non-parent satisfaction;
    - Maintaining low turnover of staff;
    - Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards.

   Have you comments about any of these ratings?

8. What factor most inhibits the effectiveness of an elementary school?

9. What suggestions have you for improving the effectiveness of elementary schools?

---

10. In your opinion, what is the prime indicator of the effectiveness of an elementary school principal?

11. Principals rated the following as the *most important criteria* for judging the effectiveness of elementary school principals:
    - Communicating with, providing feedback to, fostering the morale of, and obtaining qualified, staff;
    - Fostering high expectations and morale of students;
    - Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions.

    Least important was:
    - Enlisting the support of the non-parent community.

    Do you have explanations for these ratings?

12. What factor most inhibits the effectiveness of principals of elementary schools?

13. What suggestions have you for improving the effectiveness of elementary school principals?

---

14. What relationship (if any) is there between:
    (a) Your job satisfaction and the effectiveness of your school?
    (b) Your job satisfaction and your effectiveness as a school principal?
    (c) Your effectiveness as a principal and the effectiveness of your school?

15. Are the job satisfaction of elementary school principals, school effectiveness, and/or the effectiveness of principals affected by:
    (a) School setting (city, town, rural)?
    (b) Size of school?
    (c) The principal's sex, age, career aspirations, and/or principalship experience?

APPENDIX D

CORRESPONDENCE:
REQUESTS FOR SUPPORT FROM SUPERINTENDENTS, REQUESTS FOR COOPERATION WITH PILOT TESTING, COVERING LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS, QUESTIONNAIRE REPLY POSTCARDS, FOLLOW-UP LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS AND REQUEST FOR FINAL INTERVIEW

6 October 1986

Dr./Mr.
Superintendent of Schools
County/Division/District of

Dear Dr./Mr.:

I am preparing to conduct research in elementary and junior high schools in Alberta in order to obtain information about the work of school principals and schools. This study is part of a research program I started some years ago which has focused mainly upon job satisfaction of teachers and principals. My recent research in this area has been published in *Educational Administration Quarterly* and *The Canadian Administrator*, which is an important indication of its scholarly calibre.

On this occasion, I wish to obtain from elementary and junior high school principals their perceptions about school effectiveness and their job satisfaction, effectiveness, influence and involvement in administrative tasks. In one respect, it will replicate my recent study of senior high school principals' perceptions. However, the proposed study will also pay special attention to the crucial matter of school effectiveness and its practical implications for schools in Alberta.

I will be assisted in this work by two graduate students in this Department, Mr. Neil Johnson and Mrs. Sriprapa Sroypan, who will use some of the data from this study for their doctoral dissertations.

The research plan will involve administration of questionnaires to a sample of school principals throughout Alberta. In your case, I plan to send questionnaires to principals of the following schools in early November:

Elementary School	*Junior High School*

Subsequently, we would like to interview some of these principals to obtain more detailed information about important issues arising from the questionnaire responses. At the conclusion of the study, a summary report of findings will be mailed to all principals who complete the questionnaire, as well as to their superintendents.

Although I understand that you require no formal application to conduct research of this kind in your jurisdiction, I thought it appropriate to inform you of my intentions, and I would be grateful if you would commend the proposed study to the principals concerned.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

Dr./Mr.
Superintendent
Edmonton .... School District

19 August 1986

Dear Dr./Mr:

I am writing to request your permission to conduct a research project in your District in November 1986. The main purpose of this project is to further examine relationships between school effectiveness and job satisfaction, leader effectiveness, and bases of influence of principals in elementary and secondary schools.

The proposed study is an extension of a research program I started some years ago which has focused mainly upon job satisfaction of teachers and principals. To indicate the nature of this work, I have enclosed a copy of an article which has recently been published in *Educational Administration Quarterly*. Recognition by a refereed journal of this stature is an assurance that international scholars hold this program of research in high esteem.

On this occasion, I wish to examine effectiveness, satisfaction and influence of principals in the comparative settings of elementary and junior high schools. The crucial aspect of school effectiveness will be investigated in greater detail than previously, and practical as well as theoretical implications will be considered. As before, the research plan involves administration of questionnaires to a sample of school principals throughout Alberta and brief interviews with principals from approximately three elementary and three junior high schools in your District. In addition, I would like to interview your Area Superintendents, to have them rate the effectiveness of schools in their areas on several dimensions, and to ask teachers in the EPSB schools sampled to complete a questionnaire on school effectiveness. In total, approximately forty-five of your schools would be involved. Copies of all *draft* questionnaire instruments are enclosed for your perusal.

[To Edmonton Public School District: You may be interested in integrating perceptions about school effectiveness from this study with those that your District has obtained from teachers, students, central services personnel, parents, and other members of the community. From my point of view, this would add an extremely valuable dimension to the study. Of course, all the information would be treated as *confidential*, and a report of findings would be made available to you on completion of the study.]

In accordance with formal requirements, I will also send this request in the usual way through our Office of Field Services, Faculty of Education. The research proposal has been approved by an Ethics Committee of the University of Alberta Faculty of Education, and I have been awarded a grant to conduct the research by that Faculty's Scholarships and Research Awards Committee.

I would be pleased to discuss this proposal with you and any of your colleagues.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

3 November 1986

Mr.
Principal
.... Elementary School

Dear Mr.:

Re: *Pilot Testing of Questionnaires*

I am writing to request your help in completing the enclosed questionnaire for principals and in evaluating the covering letter and questionnaire for teachers. I am calling on you because of your experience as an elementary school principal.

So that the questionnaire and covering letter can be improved, would you please record your reactions, criticisms, and recommendations about *any aspects* of these documents. If convenient, it would also be helpful if two members of your staff completed the questionnaire for teachers. I am particularly interested in opinions about the following matters:

1. length of the questionnaires;
2. any ambiguity or lack of clarity in the instructions in each section;
3. general layout and readability;
4. specific questions which are ambiguous or unsuitable;
5. important omissions from the questionnaires; and
6. the suitability of the rating scales.

I shall return to the school on .... of this week to collect your completed questionnaires and written comments.

Your willingness to give time and expertise to this matter is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Neil A. Johnson

To: Members of Staff

From: Neil Johnson

Re: Pilot Testing of Questionnaires

I would be most grateful to receive your help in completing the enclosed questionnaire for teachers and in evaluating the covering letter.

So that the questionnaire and covering letter can be improved, please record your reactions, criticisms, and recommendations about *any aspects* of these documents. In particular, you may wish to express opinion about the following matters:

1. length of the questionnaire;
2. any ambiguity or lack of clarity in the instructions;
3. general layout and readability;
4. specific questions which are ambiguous or unsuitable;
5. important omissions from the questionnaire; and
6. the suitability of the rating scales.

This .... I shall return to the school to collect your completed questionnaires and written comments. It would help me if all questionnaires and comments could be collected from the principal's office at that time.

I am appreciative of your willingness to expend time and effort on this matter.

10 November 1986

Dr./Mr./Ms.
Principal
.... Elementary School

Dear Dr./Mr./Ms.:

I am writing to request your assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire for principals. The purpose of the study is to learn more about principals' attitudes and their work in elementary and junior high schools in Alberta. The questions relate to your tasks and responsibilities, your job satisfaction, and your feelings about school effectiveness, your own effectiveness, and your influence.

This study is part of a continuing program of research. On this occasion, I am emphasizing school effectiveness, which is a topic of current interest to all principals. In the past, principals in Alberta have been very willing to help with this research and have expressed interest in the findings. I hope that you will likewise assist in this study.

To ensure that all responses remain anonymous, please take these steps: (1) complete the questionnaire for principals and return it in the enclosed stamped envelope, and (2) return the stamped addressed numbered postcard as a *separate* mail item. This will permit me to know that you have returned the questionnaire without knowing which questionnaire is yours.

I am being assisted in this work by two graduate students in this Department, Mr. Neil Johnson and Mrs. Sriprapa Sroypan, who will use some of the data from the study for their doctoral dissertations. Next March, Mr. Johnson and Mrs. Sroypan will visit schools to interview a number of principals in order to obtain more detailed information about important issues arising from the questionnaire responses. If you are willing to help by being interviewed in your school, please record this on the numbered postcard enclosed.

At the conclusion of the study, a summary report will be mailed to all principals who complete the questionnaire.

Your cooperation in this study is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

Respondent Number

☐ I have completed and mailed the questionnaire on the role and satisfaction of school principals in Alberta.

☐ I am willing to be interviewed.

Please mail this card at the same time that you mail the completed questionnaire.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Dr./Mr./Ms.
Principal
.... Elementary School
Edmonton

10 November 1986

Dear Dr./Mr./Ms.:

I am writing to request your assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire for principals. The purpose of the study is to learn more about principals' attitudes and their work in elementary and junior high schools in Alberta. The questions relate to your tasks and responsibilities, your job satisfaction, and your feelings about school effectiveness, your own effectiveness, and your influence.

This study is part of a continuing program of research. On this occasion, I am emphasizing school effectiveness, which is a topic of current interest to all principals. In the past, principals in Alberta have been very willing to help with this research and have expressed interest in the findings. I hope that you will likewise assist in this study.

The study pays special attention to the crucial matter of school effectiveness and, in this respect only, it also seeks the opinions of practising teachers in Edmonton Public and Edmonton Catholic School District schools. The Superintendents of both Districts have expressed their interest in, and support for, this aspect of the study. For this reason, I have enclosed copies of a school effectiveness questionnaire for completion by all educational staff members (other than yourself) at your school. Please distribute these questionnaires to the staff members and ask them to record their responses, seal their questionnaires in the envelopes provided (for the sake of their privacy), and return them to you for mailing. It is important that all teachers complete and return their questionnaires.

Please return your questionnaire together with all of the teachers' questionnaires in the enclosed stamped envelope. The questionnaires are identified only by a school code number, and all responses will be treated as *strictly confidential.*

I am being assisted in this work by two graduate students in this Department, Mr. Neil Johnson and Mrs. Sriprapa Sroypan, who will use some of the data from the study for their doctoral dissertations. Next March, Mr. Johnson and Mrs. Sroypan will visit schools to interview a number of principals in order to obtain more detailed information about important issues arising from the questionnaire responses. If you are willing to help by being interviewed in your school, please record this at the end of your questionnaire.

At the conclusion of the study, a summary report will be mailed to all principals who return completed questionnaires.

Your cooperation in this study is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

10 November 1986

Dear Teacher:

I am conducting a program of research on school effectiveness in Alberta and would be most grateful if you would complete the enclosed questionnaire. A major purpose of this study is to obtain teachers' attitudes about school effectiveness in elementary and junior high schools in the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Catholic School Districts.

This study has been endorsed by your Superintendent.

Would you please record your responses and, to ensure privacy, seal your questionnaire in the envelope provided, and then return it to your principal for mailing to me. Your principal will also be completing a questionnaire, and then will return all of the questionnaires in a preaddressed envelope. So that the findings from the study will accurately reflect teachers' perceptions, it is important that all teachers complete and return their questionnaires.

As I have stated to your principal, all responses will be treated as *strictly confidential*.

At the conclusion of the study, a summary report of the findings will be mailed to the principals who return completed questionnaires. I expect that principals will then share this report with their teachers.

Your cooperation in completing and returning the questionnaire to the principal is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

4 December 1986

Mr./Ms.
Principal
.... Elementary School

Dear Mr./Ms.:

On 10 November 1986 I mailed to you a questionnaire concerning satisfaction and effectiveness, together with a stamped return envelope and separate postcard. I have not yet received your postcard to indicate that you have completed the questionnaire.

If you have not already done so, I would be most grateful if you would take the time to complete and forward the questionnaire to me. A high rate of return will ensure that the data accurately reflect the work and attitudes of school principals in Alberta. It would help me also if you would complete the enclosed postcard and mail it separately.

Please inform me (432-5295) if you need another copy of the questionnaire and/or a return envelope.

Your assistance in this matter is greatly appreciated. As is my usual practice, copies of the final research report will be sent to all principals who complete the questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

Respondent Number

Please check one of the following responses concerning the questionnaire on the role and satisfaction of school principals in Alberta.

☐ I have completed and mailed the questionnaire and card.

☐ I have completed and mailed the questionnaire but **not** the card.

☐ I did not receive the questionnaire.

☐ I have received the questionnaire and card and shall complete and mail the questionnaire.

☐ I shall not complete the questionnaire.

THANK YOU

4 December 1986

Mr./Ms.
Principal
.... Elementary School
Edmonton

Dear Mr./Ms.:

On 10 November 1986 I mailed to you a questionnaire for principals concerning satisfaction and effectiveness, together with questionnaires on school effectiveness for teachers. I have not yet received your completed questionnaires and am concerned that you may not have received them.

If you have not already done so, I would be most grateful if you would take the time to complete your questionnaire, to encourage the members of your staff to return their completed questionnaires to you, and then to forward all of them to me in the stamped envelope(s) provided.

If you have not received the questionnaires, I shall be happy to send new copies to you on request. A high rate of return will ensure that the data accurately reflect the work and attitudes of school principals and teachers in Alberta.

Please inform me (432-5295) if you need additional questionnaires and/or return envelopes.

Your assistance in this matter is greatly appreciated. As is my usual practice, copies of the final research report will be sent to all principals who return the completed questionnaires.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

15 April 1987

Dr./Mr./Ms.
Principal
.... Elementary School

Dear Dr./Mr./Ms.:

Late in 1986 you completed a questionnaire dealing with satisfaction of principals and the effectiveness of principals and schools. You indicated at that time that you would be willing to be interviewed on these topics. Incidentally, 85% of the principals who were approached returned completed questionnaires.

You have been selected as one of ten elementary school principals to be interviewed. This interview will allow for exploration of some of the findings from the questionnaire responses and thereby will provide further valuable insights. Either Mr. Neil Johnson, my doctoral student, or I will telephone you in early May to arrange an appointment. About 45 minutes should be adequate.

I trust that you are still willing to be interviewed and that this will prove to be a mutually rewarding experience.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway, Ph.D.
Professor

APPENDIX E

ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table 5.2

Principals' Levels of Satisfaction with Job Facets

Job Facet	Degree of Dissatisfaction (%f)			Degree of Satisfaction (%f)			Percent[1]		
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Satisfied	n	Mean
Working Conditions									
1. The way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in the school system	5	9	6	27	45	9	81	106	4.3
2. The salary the principal receives	4	9	9	14	47	17	78	111	4.4
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	3	5	9	18	46	19	83	112	4.6
4. Quality of custodial services in the school	6	6	10	10	31	37	78	112	4.6
5. The number of hours the principal is required to work	2	12	15	20	40	12	71	112	4.2
6. The principal's physical working conditions	4	6	10	11	41	28	80	111	4.6
7. Availability of clerical staff to assist the principal	5	8	5	13	33	37	83	112	4.7
Personnel-Related Matters									
8. The principal's working relationships with teachers	–	–	2	5	45	49	98	112	5.4
9. The principal's social relationships with teachers	–	–	3	19	50	29	97	111	5.0
10. The teaching competence of teachers	–	–	1	7	60	32	99	111	5.2
11. The competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms	–	2	1	21	54	23	97	112	5.0
12. Attitudes of teachers toward ongoing professional improvement	–	2	6	20	45	28	92	112	4.9
13. The help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed	–	–	2	17	61	21	98	112	5.0
14. Attitudes of teachers toward change	–	4	7	26	50	13	99	112	4.6
15. Satisfaction and morale of the staff	–	2	4	12	44	39	95	112	5.2

Table 5.2 (continued)

Principals' Levels of Satisfaction with Job Facets

	Degree of Dissatisfaction (%f)			Degree of Satisfaction (%f)					
Job Facet	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent Satisfied	n	Mean
Student-Related Matters									
16. The principal's relationships with students	–	–	2	5	45	49	98	111	5.4
17. The attitudes of students toward education	–	2	8	28	48	14	90	111	4.6
18. Satisfaction and morale of students	–	–	3	23	51	23	97	111	5.0
19. Achievement of students	–	2	5	19	63	13	94	112	4.8
Role-Related Matters									
20. The principal's freedom to change the school program	5	2	6	24	43	21	88	111	4.6
21. The principal's freedom to allocate teaching assignments	2	–	7	14	42	35	91	112	5.0
22. The principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school	6	2	13	19	38	23	80	112	4.5
23. Authority associated with the principal's position	2	–	6	15	49	28	92	112	4.9
24. The principal's involvement in budget preparation	3	5	9	13	40	30	84	110	4.7
25. The principal's responsibility for formal teacher evaluation	2	2	2	9	51	34	95	111	5.1
District-Related Matters									
26. The principal's relationship with the superintendent	1	3	2	16	46	33	95	112	5.0
27. The principal's relationships with other central office staff	3	1	5	13	49	30	92	112	4.9
28. The principal's involvement in decision making at the district/division/county level	5	–	14	36	37	9	82	109	4.3
29. Availability of useful advice to assist the principal with problems	2	5	5	25	42	21	88	112	4.7

Table 5.2 (continued)

Principals' Levels of Satisfaction with Job Facets

Job Facet	Degree of Dissatisfaction (%f)			Degree of Satisfaction (%f)			Percent Satisfied	n	Mean
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High			
District-Related Matters (continued)									
30. Opportunities for useful in-service education for the principal	1	6	13	17	34	30	80	112	4.7
31. Expectations of the school board for the principal	4	4	9	26	48	10	84	112	4.4
32. The methods used to evaluate principals	4	5	18	23	35	15	73	112	4.3
33. Attitudes of school board administrators toward teachers and administrators	4	2	6	21	39	28	88	112	4.7
Occupation-Related Matters									
34. Attitudes of parents toward the school	–	1	2	20	45	33	97	112	5.1
35. The principal's social position in the community	–	–	4	16	53	27	96	106	5.0
36. Achievement of the principal's own professional objectives	1	–	3	16	56	24	96	111	5.0
37. The principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator	–	1	3	11	56	30	96	110	5.1
38. Recognition by others of the principal's work	1	2	5	32	45	14	92	111	4.6
39. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life	5	6	14	21	33	21	74	112	4.3
40. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	4	5	8	21	46	16	83	112	4.5
41. Successful completion of projects and tasks	–	–	1	18	55	26	99	112	5.1

Principals rated their levels of job satisfaction on each facet using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Dissatisfied") to 6 ("Highly Satisfied").

1. "Percent Satisfied" = total of Slightly, Moderately, and Highly Satisfied ratings.

Table 5.10

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Job Facets for Their Satisfaction

Job Facet	Importance (%f)				Percent[1] Important	n	Mean
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme			
Working Conditions							
1. The way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in the school system	–	8	34	57	92	108	3.5
2. The salary the principal receives	–	7	62	31	93	112	3.2
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	1	12	51	37	87	111	3.2
4. Quality of custodial services in the school	1	5	32	63	95	112	3.6
5. The number of hours the principal is required to work	3	5	44	49	93	112	3.4
6. The principal's physical working conditions	1	7	51	41	92	112	3.3
7. Availability of clerical staff to assist the principal	–	1	16	83	99	111	3.8
Personnel-Related Matters							
8. The principal's working relationships with teachers	–	–	1	99	100	112	4.0
9. The principal's social relationships with teachers	5	33	43	20	63	112	2.8
10. The teaching competence of teachers	–	–	1	99	100	112	4.0
11. The competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms	–	1	34	65	99	112	3.6
12. Attitudes of teachers toward ongoing professional improvement	–	3	28	70	97	112	3.7
13. The help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed	–	1	11	88	99	112	3.9
14. Attitudes of teachers toward change	–	–	34	66	100	112	3.7
15. Satisfaction and morale of the staff	–	–	7	93	100	112	3.9

Table 5.10 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Job Facets for Their Satisfaction

	Importance (%f)						
Job Facet	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Percent Important	n	Mean
Student-Related Matters							
16. The principal's relationships with students	–	1	14	86	99	111	3.8
17. The attitudes of students toward education	–	1	22	78	99	111	3.8
18. Satisfaction and morale of students	–	2	17	81	98	111	3.8
19. Achievement of students	–	1	19	80	99	112	3.8
Role-Related Matters							
20. The principal's freedom to change the school program	1	6	46	47	93	112	3.4
21. The principal's freedom to allocate teaching assignments	–	1	35	64	99	112	3.6
22. The principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school	–	2	13	86	98	112	3.8
23. Authority associated with the principal's position	1	9	40	51	90	111	3.4
24. The principal's involvement in budget preparation	1	4	34	61	96	111	3.6
25. The principal's responsibility for formal teacher evaluation	2	5	31	63	94	112	3.5
District-Related Matters							
26. The principal's relationship with the superintendent	–	3	43	55	97	112	3.5
27. The principal's relationships with other central office staff	–	6	50	44	94	111	3.4
28. The principal's involvement in decision making at the district/division/county level	1	12	53	34	87	111	3.2
29. Availability of useful advice to assist the principal with problems	–	3	38	60	97	112	3.6

Table 5.10 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Job Facets for Their Satisfaction

Job Facet	Importance (%f)				Percent Important	n	Mean
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme			
District-Related Matters (continued)							
30. Opportunities for useful in-service education for the principal	–	1	38	62	99	112	3.6
31. Expectations of the school board for the principal	1	2	38	59	97	112	3.6
32. The methods used to evaluate principals	–	5	38	57	96	112	3.5
33. Attitudes of school board administrators toward teachers and administrators	–	2	23	75	98	111	3.7
Occupation-Related Matters							
34. Attitudes of parents toward the school	–	–	12	88	100	112	3.9
35. The principal's social position in the community	12	25	53	11	63	112	2.6
36. Achievement of the principal's own professional objectives	–	5	36	60	96	112	3.6
37. The principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator	–	–	12	88	100	111	3.9
38. Recognition by others of the principal's work	1	5	59	36	95	112	3.3
39. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life	–	5	33	63	96	112	3.6
40. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	2	14	54	31	85	111	3.1
41. Successful completion of projects and tasks	–	1	18	81	99	112	3.8

Principals rated the importance of each facet on a four-point scale from 1 ("Not Important") to 4 ("Extremely Important").

1. "Percent Important" = total of Moderately and Extremely Important ratings.

Table 5.12

Concurrence of Extreme Importance and Extreme Satisfaction Ratings

Job Facet	n	"Extremely Important" Rating				
		"Highly Dissatisfied"		"Highly Satisfied"		Total %f Extreme
		f	%f	f	%f	
1. The way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in the school system	62	5	8.1	7	11.3	19.4
2. The salary the principal receives	35	4	11.4	6	17.1	28.5
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	41	2	4.9	9	22.0	26.9
4. Quality of custodial services in the school	70	5	7.1	26	37.1	44.2
5. The number of hours the principal is required to work	55	1	1.8	6	10.9	12.7
6. The principal's physical working conditions	45	3	6.7	15	33.3	40.0
7. Availability of clerical staff to assist the principal	92	4	4.3	38	41.3	45.6
8. The principal's working relationships with teachers	111	–	–	55	49.5	49.5
9. The principal's social relationships with teachers	22	–	–	11	50.0	50.0
10. The teaching competence of teachers	110	–	–	35	31.8	31.8
11. The competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms	73	–	–	18	24.7	24.7
12. Attitudes of teachers toward ongoing professional improvement	78	–	–	25	32.1	32.1
13. The help the principal gives teachers and students to succeed	99	–	–	21	21.2	21.2
14. Attitudes of teachers toward change	74	–	–	12	16.2	16.2
15. Satisfaction and morale of the staff	104	–	–	43	41.3	41.3

Table 5.12 (continued)

Concurrence of Extreme Importance and Extreme Satisfaction Ratings

Job Facet	n	"Highly Dissatisfied" f	"Highly Dissatisfied" %f	"Highly Satisfied" f	"Highly Satisfied" %f	Total %f Extreme
16. The principal's relationships with students	95	–	–	48	50.5	50.5
17. The attitudes of students toward education	86	–	–	14	16.3	16.3
18. Satisfaction and morale of students	90	–	–	26	28.9	28.9
19. Achievement of students	90	–	–	13	14.4	14.4
20. The principal's freedom to change the school program	53	3	5.7	17	32.1	37.8
21. The principal's freedom to allocate teaching assignments	72	2	2.8	34	47.2	50.0
22. The principal's involvement in hiring teachers for the school	96	5	5.2	26	27.1	32.3
23. Authority associated with the principal's position	56	2	3.6	22	39.3	42.9
24. The principal's involvement in budget preparation	67	3	4.5	25	37.3	41.8
25. The principal's responsibility for formal teacher evaluation	70	1	1.4	30	42.9	44.3
26. The principal's relationship with the superintendent	61	1	1.6	24	39.3	40.9
27. The principal's relationships with other central office staff	44	3	6.1	21	42.9	49.0
28. The principal's involvement in decision making at the district/division/county level	37	5	13.5	4	10.8	24.3
29. Availability of useful advice to assist the principal with problems	67	2	3.0	20	29.9	32.9
30. Opportunities for useful in-service education for the principal	69	–	–	28	40.6	40.6

Table 5.12 (continued)

Concurrence of Extreme Importance and Extreme Satisfaction Ratings

Job Facet	n	"Extremely Important" Rating				
		"Highly Dissatisfied"		"Highly Satisfied"		Total %f Extreme
		f	%f	f	%f	
31. Expectations of the school board for the principal	66	2	3.0	10	15.2	18.2
32. The methods used to evaluate principals	64	4	6.3	15	23.4	29.7
33. Attitudes of school board administrators toward teachers and administrators	83	3	3.6	27	32.5	36.1
34. Attitudes of parents toward the school	99	–	–	37	37.4	37.4
35. The principal's social position in the community	12	–	–	5	41.7	41.7
36. Achievement of the principal's own professional objectives	66	1	1.5	24	36.4	37.9
37. The principal's sense of accomplishment as an administrator	97	–	–	32	33.0	33.0
38. Recognition by others of the principal's work	30	1	2.6	7	17.9	20.5
39. The effect of the job on the principal's personal life	70	6	8.6	17	24.3	32.9
40. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	34	2	5.9	8	23.5	29.4
41. Successful completion of projects and tasks	91	–	–	27	29.7	29.7

Table 5.12 (continued)

Concurrence of Extreme Importance and Extreme Satisfaction Ratings

		"Not Important" Rating[1]				
Job Facet	n	"Highly Dissatisfied"		"Highly Satisfied"		Total %f Extreme
		f	%f	f	%f	
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	1	1	100.0	–	–	100.0
4. Quality of custodial services in the school	1	–	–	–	–	–
5. The number of hours the principal is required to work	1	–	–	1	100.0	100.0
6. The principal's physical working conditions	1	–	–	1	100.0	100.0
9. The principal's social relationships with teachers	4	–	–	2	50.0	50.0
20. The principal's freedom to change the school program	1	1	100.0	–	–	100.0
24. The principal's involvement in budget preparation	1	–	–	–	–	–
25. The principal's responsibility for formal teacher evaluation	2	–	–	–	–	–
28. The principal's involvement in decision making at the district/division/county level	1	–	–	–	–	–
31. Expectations of the school board for the principal	1	1	100.0	–	–	100.0
35. The principal's social position in the community	8	–	–	7	87.5	87.5
38. Recognition by others of the principal's work	1	–	–	–	–	–
40. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	2	–	–	–	–	–

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[1] Very few items were rated "not important" by any respondents; only those that were so rated are reported here.

Table 6.2

Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)					
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent[1] Effective	n	Mean
1. Setting school goals	–	–	3	14	61	23	97	111	5.0
2. Communicating school goals to students	–	1	5	30	51	13	94	111	4.7
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	–	–	3	9	64	24	97	111	5.1
4. Preparing students for the junior high school program	1	–	5	18	60	16	95	110	4.9
5. Emphasizing academic subjects	–	–	–	12	60	28	100	110	5.2
6. Encouraging academic success	–	–	–	8	60	32	100	110	5.2
7. Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	–	3	3	21	57	17	95	111	4.8
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	–	–	2	9	59	31	98	111	5.2
9. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	–	1	1	10	61	27	98	111	5.1
10. Maximizing development of important social skills	–	–	3	17	59	21	97	112	5.0
11. Maximizing development of creativity	–	–	6	26	59	10	95	112	4.7
12. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	–	–	6	23	43	28	94	112	4.9
13. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	–	–	1	13	58	29	99	111	5.1
14. Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	2	–	3	10	53	32	96	111	5.1
15. Enforcing behavioral rules among students	1	2	–	7	59	31	97	110	5.1
16. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	–	–	1	3	50	47	99	111	5.4

Table 6.2 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

Criterion	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f) High	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f) Moderate	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f) Slight	Degree of Effectiveness (%f) Slight	Degree of Effectiveness (%f) Moderate	Degree of Effectiveness (%f) High	Percent Effective	n	Mean
17. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	–	–	3	8	51	38	97	112	5.3
18. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	–	2	3	19	56	21	96	112	4.9
19. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	–	2	3	12	53	31	96	111	5.1
20. Maintaining low turnover of staff	–	1	4	15	35	45	96	111	5.2
21. Maintaining high expectations of staff	–	2	–	10	56	32	98	112	5.2
22. Displaying staff commitment to the school	–	2	1	17	56	24	97	112	5.0
23. Showing a high level of staff motivation	–	2	–	15	58	25	98	111	5.0
24. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	–	1	3	12	43	42	97	112	5.2
25. Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	2	2	6	30	41	20	91	112	4.7
26. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	–	–	2	19	62	17	98	111	4.9
27. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	–	1	1	27	53	19	98	112	4.9
28. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	–	–	1	17	63	19	99	110	5.0
29. Using appropriate teaching methods	–	–	3	8	67	23	97	111	5.1
30. Making efficient use of staff time	–	–	1	11	66	22	99	112	5.1
31. Making efficient use of resources	–	–	2	14	68	16	98	111	5.0
32. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	1	–	3	20	52	25	96	112	5.0

Table 6.2 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

Criterion	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)			Percent		
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Effective	n	Mean
33. Taking advantage of staffing changes	2	–	2	20	50	27	96	112	5.0
34. Responding to changing community expectations	–	–	4	16	58	23	96	111	5.0
35. Maintaining communication with the community	–	–	4	9	37	51	96	112	5.3
36. Obtaining support from the community	1	–	3	10	38	48	96	112	5.3
37. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	–	–	1	10	61	28	99	110	5.2
38. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	–	6	10	38	39	7	84	109	4.3

Principals rated the effectiveness of their schools on each criterion using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").

1. "Percent Effective" = total of Slightly, Moderately and Highly Effective ratings.

Table 6.10

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Importance (%f) None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Percent[1] Important	n	Mean
1. Setting school goals	–	–	20	80	100	112	3.8
2. Communicating school goals to students	–	4	33	63	96	112	3.6
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	–	–	6	94	100	112	3.9
4. Preparing students for the junior high school program	2	6	42	50	92	111	3.4
5. Emphasizing academic subjects	1	–	46	53	99	112	3.5
6. Encouraging academic success	–	1	19	80	99	112	3.8
7. Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	1	15	43	41	84	111	3.2
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	–	–	11	89	100	112	3.8
9. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	–	1	14	85	99	112	3.8
10. Maximizing development of important social skills	–	–	19	81	100	112	3.8
11. Maximizing development of creativity	–	–	32	68	100	112	3.7
12. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	–	7	51	42	93	112	3.3
13. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	–	–	13	88	100	112	3.9
14. Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	–	3	29	69	97	111	3.7
15. Enforcing behavioral rules among students	1	5	37	58	95	111	3.5
16. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	–	–	5	95	100	112	3.9

Table 6.10 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

	Importance (%f)						
Criterion	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Percent Important	n	Mean
17. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	–	–	14	86	100	112	3.9
18. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	–	1	19	80	99	112	3.8
19. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	–	–	13	87	100	112	3.9
20. Maintaining low turnover of staff	4	14	44	38	82	112	3.2
21. Maintaining high expectations of staff	–	–	17	83	100	112	3.8
22. Displaying staff commitment to the school	–	1	28	71	99	112	3.7
23. Showing a high level of staff motivation	–	–	27	73	100	111	3.7
24. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	–	–	17	83	100	112	3.8
25. Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	–	9	48	43	91	112	3.3
26. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	–	3	21	76	97	112	3.7
27. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	–	3	48	49	97	112	3.5
28. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	–	3	47	51	97	111	3.5
29. Using appropriate teaching methods	–	–	14	87	100	111	3.9
30. Making efficient use of staff time	–	–	27	73	100	111	3.7
31. Making efficient use of resources	–	–	35	65	100	112	3.7
32. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	3	38	59	97	112	3.6

Table 6.10 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Importance (%f) None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Percent Important	n	Mean
33. Taking advantage of staffing changes	–	6	44	50	94	112	3.4
34. Responding to changing community expectations	–	3	43	55	97	112	3.5
35. Maintaining communication with the community	–	1	17	82	99	112	3.8
36. Obtaining support from the community	–	–	18	82	100	112	3.8
37. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	–	1	24	75	99	111	3.7
38. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	1	24	52	23	75	112	3.0
39. Displaying leadership by the principal	–	1	10	89	99	111	3.9

Principals rated the importance of each criterion on a four-point scale from 1 ("Not Important") to 4 ("Extremely Important").

1. "Percent Important" = total of Moderately and Extremely Important ratings.

Table 6.11

Comparison of the Ten Most Effective Aspects and Ten Most Important Criteria for Judging Overall Effectiveness of Schools

Criterion	School Effectiveness Level		Importance	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
1. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	5.423	1	3.946	1
2. Maintaining communication with the community	5.348	2	3.813	13.5
3. Obtaining support from the community	5.295	3	3.821	12
4. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	5.250	4	3.857	8
5. Encouraging academic success	5.236	5	3.795	16.5
6. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	5.223	6	3.830	10.5
7. Maintaining low turnover of staff	5.198	7	3.170	38
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	5.180	8	3.893	3
9. Maintaining high expectations of staff	5.170	9	3.830	10.5
10. Emphasizing academic subjects	5.164	10.5	3.509	30
11. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	5.164	10.5	3.739	18
12. Maintaining high expectations of students	5.099	16.5	3.938	2
13. Displaying leadership by the principal	5.128[1]	14	3.883	4
14. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	5.144	13	3.875	5
15. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	5.081	20	3.866	6
16. Using appropriate teaching methods	5.090	18	3.865	7

Table 6.11 (continued)

Comparison of the Ten Most Effective Aspects and Ten Most Important Criteria for Judging Overall Effectiveness of Schools

Criterion	School Effectiveness Level		Importance	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
17. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	5.126	15	3.839	9

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1. For this comparison only, the criterion "displaying leadership by the principal" was compared with principals' mean ratings of effectiveness on the item "your overall effectiveness as a leader," which appeared in the principalship effectiveness section of the questionnaire; effectiveness ratings on this dimension are discussed in detail in the next chapter. With the inclusion of this item, both sets of rankings are based on 39 item ratings.

Table 7.2

Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as Leaders

Criterion	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)			Percent[1]		
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Effective	n	Mean
1. Coordinating the development of school goals	–	–	2	10	63	26	98	112	5.1
2. Publicizing school goals	–	–	7	17	49	27	95	112	5.0
3. Promoting the achievement of school goals	–	1	4	8	62	26	96	112	5.1
4. Exercising instructional leadership	–	1	3	12	61	24	96	112	5.0
5. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	–	–	3	5	53	39	97	112	5.3
6. Improving the performance of staff	–	–	4	19	63	14	97	112	4.9
7. Evaluating staff members	–	1	2	19	57	21	97	112	5.0
8. Providing feedback to staff	–	–	4	13	52	31	97	112	5.1
9. Communicating with staff	–	–	1	12	46	41	99	112	5.3
10. Encouraging high expectations of students	–	1	2	9	60	28	97	111	5.1
11. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	–	1	2	6	53	39	97	112	5.3
12. Promoting high expectations among staff members	–	1	2	6	56	35	97	112	5.2
13. Fostering high morale among staff and students	–	1	1	11	51	36	98	111	5.2
14. Communicating with students	–	–	–	11	56	33	100	112	5.2
15. Obtaining qualified staff	1	1	4	13	52	30	95	112	5.0
16. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	–	–	2	16	50	32	98	112	5.1
17. Allocating resources	–	–	1	13	55	32	99	112	5.2
18. Coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments	–	1	4	19	55	22	96	111	4.9

Table 7.2 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as Leaders

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)					
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent Effective	n	Mean
19. Coping with uncertainty and conflict	–	–	3	21	51	26	97	112	5.0
20. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	–	3	19	45	33	97	111	5.1
21. Fostering the professional growth of staff members	–	2	1	18	53	27	97	112	5.0
22. Exercising exemplary behavior at school	–	–	–	7	49	44	100	112	5.4
23. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff members	–	1	1	17	60	21	98	111	5.0
24. Working with teachers to develop or change policies	1	–	3	17	55	24	97	112	5.0
25. Identifying community expectations	–	2	4	14	61	19	95	112	4.9
26. Adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations	–	1	5	15	63	16	95	112	4.9
27. Communicating with community groups	–	1	5	25	41	28	94	112	4.9
28. Enlisting the support of parents	–	2	2	9	47	40	96	112	5.2
29. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	2	4	6	47	35	6	88	111	4.3

Principals rated their own effectiveness on each criterion using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").

1. "Percent Effective" = total of Slightly, Moderately and Highly Effective ratings.

Table 7.10

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging the Effectiveness of Principals

Criterion	Importance (%f)				Percent[1]		
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Important	n	Mean
1. Coordinating the development of school goals	–	3	22	75	97	112	3.7
2. Publicizing school goals	–	3	47	50	97	112	3.4
3. Promoting the achievement of school goals	–	1	22	77	99	112	3.8
4. Exercising instructional leadership	–	–	22	77	100	112	3.8
5. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	–	–	11	89	100	112	3.9
6. Improving the performance of staff	–	–	15	85	100	112	3.8
7. Evaluating staff members	–	2	33	65	98	112	3.6
8. Providing feedback to staff	–	–	13	87	100	112	3.9
9. Communicating with staff	–	–	3	98	100	112	4.0
10. Encouraging high expectations of students	–	–	9	91	100	111	3.9
11. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	–	–	21	79	100	112	3.8
12. Promoting high expectations among staff members	–	1	20	80	99	112	3.8
13. Fostering high morale among staff and students	–	–	11	89	100	111	3.9
14. Communicating with students	–	–	21	80	100	112	3.8
15. Obtaining qualified staff	–	–	9	91	100	112	3.9
16. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	–	2	25	73	98	112	3.7
17. Allocating resources	–	5	38	57	96	112	3.5
18. Coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments	–	8	42	50	92	112	3.4

Table 7.10 (continued)

Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging the Effectiveness of Principals

Criterion	Importance (%f) None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Percent Important	n	Mean
19. Coping with uncertainty and conflict	–	1	30	70	99	112	3.7
20. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	2	30	68	98	112	3.7
21. Fostering the professional growth of staff members	–	2	32	66	98	112	3.6
22. Exercising exemplary behaviour at school	–	4	17	80	97	112	3.8
23. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff members	–	2	19	79	98	111	3.8
24. Working with teachers to develop or change policies	–	3	38	60	97	112	3.6
25. Identifying community expectations	–	4	38	59	96	112	3.6
26. Adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations	–	5	52	43	95	112	3.4
27. Communicating with community groups	–	6	42	52	94	112	3.5
28. Enlisting the support of parents	–	1	13	86	99	112	3.8
29. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	–	21	61	18	79	111	3.0

Principals rated importance of each criterion using a four-point scale from 1 ("Not Important") to 4 ("Extremely Important").

1. "Percent Important" = total of Moderately and Extremely Important ratings.

Table 9.1

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)					
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent[1] Effective	n	Mean
1. Setting school goals	–	–	3	7	57	33	97	30	5.2
2. Communicating school goals to students	–	–	13	60	13	13	87	30	4.7
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	–	–	–	7	87	7	100	30	5.0
4. Preparing students for the junior high school program	–	–	3	21	66	10	97	29	4.8
5. Emphasizing academic subjects	–	–	–	23	57	20	100	30	5.0
6. Encouraging academic success	–	–	–	10	70	20	100	30	5.1
7. Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	–	–	–	27	67	7	100	30	4.8
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	–	–	–	10	60	30	100	30	5.2
9. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	–	–	–	10	63	27	100	30	5.2
10. Maximizing development of important social skills	–	–	3	23	57	17	97	30	4.9
11. Maximizing development of creativity	–	–	3	23	60	13	97	30	4.8
12. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	–	–	3	17	53	27	97	30	5.0
13. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	–	–	–	17	63	20	100	30	5.0
14. Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	–	–	3	20	43	33	97	30	5.1
15. Enforcing behavioral rules among students	–	–	–	10	60	30	100	30	5.2
16. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	–	–	–	3	57	40	100	30	5.4

Table 9.1 (continued)

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

Criterion	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)			Percent Effective	n	Mean
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High			
17. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	–	–	–	13	63	23	100	30	5.1
18. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	–	–	–	23	53	23	100	30	5.0
19. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	–	–	–	7	60	33	100	30	5.3
20. Maintaining low turnover of staff	–	–	7	7	43	43	93	30	5.2
21. Maintaining high expectations of staff	–	–	–	10	53	37	100	30	5.3
22. Displaying staff commitment to the school	–	–	–	13	53	33	100	30	5.2
23. Showing a high level of staff motivation	–	–	–	21	41	38	100	29	5.2
24. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	–	–	3	7	40	50	97	30	5.4
25. Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	–	–	3	40	47	10	97	30	4.6
26. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	–	–	–	13	70	17	100	30	5.0
27. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	–	–	–	37	53	10	100	30	4.7
28. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	–	–	–	23	67	10	100	30	4.9
29. Using appropriate teaching methods	–	–	–	10	73	17	100	30	5.1
30. Making efficient use of staff time	–	–	–	7	67	27	100	30	5.2
31. Making efficient use of resources	–	–	3	13	67	17	97	30	5.0
32. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	–	7	13	50	30	93	30	5.0

Table 9.1 (continued)

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Their Schools

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)					
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent Effective	n	Mean
33. Taking advantage of staffing changes	–	–	–	13	53	33	100	30	5.2
34. Responding to changing community expectations	–	–	–	13	57	30	100	30	5.2
35. Maintaining communication with the community	–	–	–	7	40	53	100	30	5.5
36. Obtaining support from the community	–	–	3	7	53	37	97	30	5.2
37. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	–	–	–	7	59	35	100	29	5.3
38. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	–	7	14	45	31	3	79	29	4.1
39. The overall effectiveness of your school	–	–	–	3	77	20	100	30	5.2

Principals rated the effectiveness of their schools on each criterion using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").

1. "Percent Effective" = total of Slightly, Moderately and Highly Effective ratings.

Table 9.2

Edmonton Area Superintendents' Perceptions of School Effectiveness

Criterion	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)			Percent[1]		
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Effective	n[2]	Mean
1. Setting school goals	–	3	3	18	46	30	94	33	5.0
2. Communicating school goals to students	–	–	12	18	46	24	88	33	4.8
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	–	6	6	15	39	33	88	33	4.9
4. Emphasizing academic subjects	–	3	12	15	42	27	86	33	4.8
5. Maximizing academic achievement	–	6	9	24	39	21	85	33	4.6
6. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	–	–	15	27	46	12	85	26	4.5
7. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	–	6	6	30	42	15	88	33	4.5
8. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	–	6	12	18	36	27	82	33	4.7
9. Acknowledging staff and student achievements	–	6	3	15	42	33	91	33	4.9
10. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	–	3	3	27	49	18	94	33	4.8
11. Maintaining high expectations of staff	–	3	6	18	30	42	91	33	5.0
12. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	–	3	3	27	42	24	94	33	4.8
13. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	–	9	6	18	45	21	85	33	4.6
14. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	–	–	7	23	40	30	93	30	4.9
15. Using appropriate teaching methods	–	3	9	18	61	9	88	33	4.6
16. Taking advantage of staffing changes	3	–	9	24	49	15	88	33	4.6

Table 9.2 (continued)

Edmonton Area Superintendents' Perceptions of School Effectiveness

Criterion	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)					
	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent Effective	n	Mean
17. Responding to changing community expectations	–	–	21	18	33	27	79	33	4.7
18. Obtaining support from the community	–	3	9	24	33	30	88	33	4.8
19. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	–	3	12	21	33	30	85	33	4.8
20. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	–	7	19	19	42	13	74	31	4.4
21. Overall school effectiveness	–	6	9	21	36	27	85	33	4.7

Area superintendents rated the effectiveness of schools for which they were responsible using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to ("Highly Effective").

1. "Percent Effective" = total of Slightly, Moderately and Highly Effective ratings.
2. Nine area superintendents rated a total of 33 schools.

Table 9.3

Comparison of Means of School Effectiveness Perceptions of Edmonton Principals, Teachers and Area Superintendents

	Means of Effectiveness Ratings^{1,2}			
	1	2	3	
Criterion	Principals (n=30)	School Means of Teachers^{3} (n of schools=32)	Area Superintendents (n of schools=33)	sig. diff.^{4}
1. Setting school goals	5.2	5.1	5.0	–
2. Communicating school goals to students	4.7	4.8	4.8	–
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	5.0	5.0	4.9	–
4. Preparing students for the junior high school program	4.8	4.8	–	–
5. Emphasizing academic subjects	5.0	5.1	4.8	–
6. Encouraging academic success	5.1	5.1	–	–
7. Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	4.8	4.8	–	–
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	5.2	5.1	4.6 (Academic Acht.)	– 1,3* 2,3*
9. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	5.2	5.1		–
10. Maximizing development of important social skills	4.9	4.9	–	–
11. Maximizing development of creativity	4.8	4.5	–	1,2*
12. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	5.0	4.6	4.5	–
13. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	5.0	5.0	4.5	1,3* 2,3*
14. Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	5.1	4.7	–	–
15. Enforcing behavioral rules among students	5.2	4.8	–	1,2*

Table 9.3 (continued)

Comparison of Means of School Effectiveness Perceptions of
Edmonton Principals, Teachers and Area Superintendents

	Means of Effectiveness Ratings			
Criterion	1 Principals (n=30)	2 School Means of Teachers (n of schools=32)	3 Area Superintendents (n of schools=33)	sig. diff.
16. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	5.4	5.0	4.7	1,2* 1,3** 2,3*
17. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	5.1	4.9	4.9	–
18. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	5.0	4.6	4.8	1,2*
19. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	5.3	4.7	–	1,2**
20. Maintaining low turnover of staff	5.2	4.8	–	1,2*
21. Maintaining high expectations of staff	5.3	4.9	5.0	–
22. Displaying staff commitment to the school	5.2	4.9	–	–
23. Showing a high level of staff motivation	5.2	4.9	–	–
24. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	5.4	4.8	4.8	1,2** 1,3*
25. Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	4.6	4.3	–	1,2*
26. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	5.0	4.6	–	1,2*
27. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	4.7	4.9	4.6	–
28. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	4.9	5.0	4.9	–
29. Using appropriate teaching methods	5.1	5.1	4.6	2,3**

Table 9.3 (continued)

Comparison of Means of School Effectiveness Perceptions of Edmonton Principals, Teachers and Area Superintendents

Criterion	Means of Effectiveness Ratings			sig. diff.
	1 Principals (n=30)	2 School Means of Teachers (n of schools=32)	3 Area Superintendents (n of schools=33)	
30. Making efficient use of staff time	5.2	4.9	–	–
31. Making efficient use of resources	5.0	4.8	–	–
32. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	5.0	4.7	–	–
33. Taking advantage of staffing changes	5.2	4.7	4.6	1,2** 1,3*
34. Responding to changing community expectations	5.2	4.8	4.7	1,2** 1,3*
35. Maintaining communication with the community	5.5	5.2	–	–
36. Obtaining support from the community	5.2	5.0	4.8	–
37. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	5.3	5.1	4.8	–
38. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	4.1	4.3	4.4	–
39. The overall effectiveness of the school	5.2	5.0	4.7	–

1. Means are based upon ratings on a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").
2. Means are based on maximum n's; n's for significance tests are sometimes smaller, because responses were paired by school for analysis.
3. Figures in this column are based upon *means* of ratings by respondent teachers in each of 32 Edmonton schools; total number of teachers in all schools=262.
4. Owing to the large number of items about which only two groups were invited to respond, the significance of inter-group differences for every item in this table was determined by *t*-test.

* denotes statistical significance at the .05 level; ** denotes significance at the .01 level.

Note: Teachers were also asked to rate the effectiveness of their schools on the dimension "Displaying leadership by the principal." That mean rating is reported in Table 9.11, in connection with the effectiveness of principals.

Table 9.4

Comparison of Edmonton Principals' and Teachers' Ratings of the Ten Most Effective Aspects of Their Schools

Criterion	Principals		Teachers[1]	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
1. Maintaining communication with the community	5.467	1	5.173	1
2. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	5.367	2.5	5.036	9
3. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	5.367	2.5	4.797	25
4. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	5.276	4	5.077	7.5
5. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	5.267	5.5	4.677	30
6. Maintaining high expectations of staff	5.267	5.5	4.936	15
7. Maintaining low turnover of staff	5.233	7.5	4.769	27
8. Obtaining support from the community	5.233	7.5	4.965	12
9.Setting school goals	5.200	9.17	5.098	5
10.Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	5.200	9.17	5.115	3
11.Enforcing behavioural rules among students	5.200	9.17	4.848	21
12.Displaying staff commitment to the school	5.200	9.17	4.889	19
13.Making efficient use of staff time	5.200	9.17	4.917	17
14.Taking advantage of staffing changes	5.200	9.17	4.662	32

Table 9.4 (continued)

Comparison of Edmonton Principals' and Teachers' Ratings
of the Ten Most Effective Aspects of Their Schools

Criterion	Principals		Teachers	
	Mean Rating	Rank	Mean Rating	Rank
15.Using appropriate teaching methods	5.067	20.5	5.122	2
16. Emphasizing academic subjects	4.967	28.5	5.103	4
17.Maximizing achievement in mathematics	5.167	16.5	5.096	6
18.Encouraging academic success	5.100	18.5	5.077	7.5
19.Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	4.867	30.5	5.000	10

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1. For this comparison only, the criterion "displaying leadership by the principal" was omitted. With the exclusion of this item, both sets of rankings are based on 38 item ratings.

Table 9.5

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Importance (%f)				Percent[1]		
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Important	n	Mean
1. Setting school goals	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
2. Communicating school goals to students	–	3	13	83	97	30	3.8
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	–	–	3	97	100	30	4.0
4. Preparing students for the junior high school program	–	10	37	53	90	30	3.4
5. Emphasizing academic subjects	–	–	30	70	100	30	3.7
6. Encouraging academic success	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
7. Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	3	20	43	33	77	30	3.1
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	–	–	13	87	100	30	3.9
9. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	–	–	23	77	100	30	3.8
10. Maximizing development of important social skills	–	–	17	83	100	30	3.8
11. Maximizing development of creativity	–	–	33	67	100	30	3.7
12. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	–	3	47	50	97	30	3.5
13. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	–	–	7	93	100	30	3.9
14. Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	–	–	30	70	100	30	3.7
15. Enforcing behavioral rules among students	–	–	37	63	100	30	3.6
16. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	–	–	–	100	100	30	4.0

Table 9.5 (continued)

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

	Importance (%f)						
Criterion	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Percent Important	n	Mean
17. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
18. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
19. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	–	–	17	83	100	30	3.8
20. Maintaining low turnover of staff	7	13	50	30	80	30	3.0
21. Maintaining high expectations of staff	–	–	7	93	100	30	3.9
22. Displaying staff commitment to the school	–	3	17	80	97	30	3.8
23. Showing a high level of staff motivation	–	–	24	76	100	29	3.8
24. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
25. Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	–	10	63	27	90	30	3.2
26. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	–	–	23	77	100	30	3.8
27. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	–	–	60	40	100	30	3.4
28. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	–	–	57	43	100	30	3.4
29. Using appropriate teaching methods	–	–	7	93	100	30	3.9
30. Making efficient use of staff time	–	–	33	67	100	30	3.7
31. Making efficient use of resources	–	–	43	57	100	30	3.6
32. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	–	33	67	100	30	3.7

Table 9.5 (continued)

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Importance (%f)				Percent Important	n	Mean
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme			
33. Taking advantage of staffing changes	–	3	27	70	97	30	3.7
34. Responding to changing community expectations	–	–	40	60	100	30	3.6
35. Maintaining communication with the community	–	–	17	83	100	30	3.8
36. Obtaining support from the community	–	–	27	73	100	30	3.7
37. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	–	–	28	72	100	29	3.7
38. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	3	27	50	20	70	30	2.9
39. Displaying leadership by the principal	–	–	7	93	100	29	3.9

Principals rated importance on each criterion using a four-point scale from 1 ("Not Important") to 4 ("Extremely Important").

1. "Percent Important" = total of Moderately and Extremely Important ratings.

Table 9.7

Comparison of Edmonton Principals', Teachers' and Area Superintendents' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Means of Importance Ratings[1,2] Principals (n=30)	Means of Importance Ratings[1,2] School Means of Teachers[3] (n of schools=32)	sig. diff.[4]	%f of Mention by Area Superintendents (n=9)
1. Setting school goals	3.9	3.7	**	
2. Communicating school goals to students	3.8	3.6	*	
3. Maintaining high expectations of students	4.0	3.8	**	
4. Preparing students for the junior high school program	3.4	3.4	–	
5. Emphasizing academic subjects	3.7	3.5	*	
6. Encouraging academic success	3.9	3.7	**	
7. Frequently evaluating students according to defined standards	3.1	3.1	–	
8. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	3.9	3.8	–	78% (Student Acht.)
9. Maximizing achievement in mathematics	3.8	3.7	–	
10. Maximizing development of important social skills	3.8	3.8	–	
11. Maximizing development of creativity	3.7	3.4	**	
12. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities	3.5	3.1	**	
13. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale	3.9	3.8	**	22%
14. Experiencing minimal deviant behavior among students	3.7	3.6	–	
15. Enforcing behavioral rules among students	3.6	3.8	–	

Table 9.7 (continued)

Comparison of Edmonton Principals', Teachers' and Area Superintendents' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Means of Importance Ratings			%f of Mention by Area Superintendents (n=9)
	Principals (n=30)	School Means of Teachers (n of schools=32)	sig. diff.	
16. Maintaining an appropriate school climate	4.0	3.8	**	33%
17. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students	3.9	3.8	*	
18. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members	3.9	3.7	**	11%
19. Maximizing the morale of the staff as a group	3.8	3.8	–	
20. Maintaining low turnover of staff	3.0	3.0	–	
21. Maintaining high expectations of staff	3.9	3.5	**	
22. Displaying staff commitment to the school	3.8	3.5	**	
23. Showing a high level of staff motivation	3.8	3.6	–	
24. Displaying staff cooperation and cohesion	3.9	3.6	**	
25. Discussing, planning, and preparing lessons and instructional materials collaboratively	3.2	3.1	–	
26. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers	3.8	3.4	**	
27. Keeping up-to-date with new methods and technology	3.4	3.5	–	
28. Demonstrating thorough knowledge of subject matter	3.4	3.5	–	
29. Using appropriate teaching methods	3.9	3.7	**	22%
30. Making efficient use of staff time	3.7	3.6	–	

Table 9.7 (continued)

Comparison of Edmonton Principals', Teachers' and Area Superintendents' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging School Effectiveness

Criterion	Means of Importance Ratings			
	Principals (n=30)	School Means of Teachers (n of schools=32)	sig. diff.	%f of Mention by Area Superintendents (n=9)
31. Making efficient use of resources	3.6	3.5	–	
32. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	3.7	3.5	–	
33. Taking advantage of staffing changes	3.7	3.2	**	
34. Responding to changing community expectations	3.6	3.3	**	
35. Maintaining communication with the community	3.8	3.6	*	
36. Obtaining support from the community	3.7	3.6	–	) 22%)(Parents/Commty.)
37. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents	3.7	3.5	*	22%
38. Maximizing the satisfaction of the non-parent community	2.9	2.8	*	
39. Displaying leadership by the principal	3.9	3.8	*	

1. Means are based upon ratings on a four-point scale from 1 ("Not Important") to 4 ("Extremely Important").

2. Means are based on maximum n's; n's for significance tests are sometimes smaller, because responses were paired by school for analysis.

3. Figures in this column are based upon *means* of ratings by respondent teachers in each of 32 Edmonton schools; total number of teachers in all schools=262.

4. Significance of differences was determined by *t*-test. * denotes statistical significance at the .05 level; ** denotes significance at the .01 level.

Table 9.9

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as Leaders

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)			Percent[1]		
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Effective	n	Mean
1. Coordinating the development of school goals	–	–	–	13	63	23	100	30	5.1
2. Publicizing school goals	–	–	7	17	43	33	93	30	5.0
3. Promoting the achievement of school goals	–	3	–	13	53	30	97	30	5.1
4. Exercising instructional leadership	–	–	–	10	70	20	100	30	5.1
5. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	–	–	–	10	37	53	100	30	5.4
6. Improving the performance of staff	–	–	–	20	57	23	100	30	5.0
7. Evaluating staff members	–	–	–	20	57	23	100	30	5.0
8. Providing feedback to staff	–	–	3	10	53	33	97	30	5.2
9. Communicating with staff	–	–	–	13	47	40	100	30	5.3
10. Encouraging high expectations of students	–	3	–	7	67	23	97	30	5.1
11. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	–	3	–	3	53	40	97	30	5.3
12. Promoting high expectations among staff members	–	–	–	10	63	27	100	30	5.2
13. Fostering high morale among staff and students	–	–	–	13	47	40	100	30	5.3
14. Communicating with students	–	–	–	7	57	37	100	30	5.3
15. Obtaining qualified staff	–	–	3	10	43	43	97	30	5.3
16. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	–	–	3	13	53	30	97	30	5.1
17. Allocating resources	–	–	–	13	50	37	100	30	5.2
18. Coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments	–	–	–	30	57	13	100	30	4.8

Table 9.9 (continued)

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as Leaders

	Degree of Ineffectiveness (%f)			Degree of Effectiveness (%f)					
Criterion	High	Moderate	Slight	Slight	Moderate	High	Percent Effective	n	Mean
19. Coping with uncertainty and conflict	–	–	7	17	43	33	93	30	5.0
20. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	–	3	23	30	43	97	30	5.1
21. Fostering the professional growth of staff members	–	–	–	20	43	37	100	30	5.2
22. Exercising exemplary behaviour at school	–	–	–	7	50	43	100	30	5.4
23. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff members	–	–	–	21	59	21	100	29	5.0
24. Working with teachers to develop or change policies	–	–	–	20	60	20	100	30	5.0
25. Identifying community expectations	–	–	3	17	63	17	97	30	4.9
26. Adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations	–	–	3	17	67	13	97	30	4.9
27. Communicating with community groups	–	–	10	27	30	33	90	30	4.9
28. Enlisting the support of parents	–	3	3	13	50	30	93	30	5.0
29. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	3	3	7	55	28	3	86	29	4.1
30. Your overall effectiveness as a leader	–	–	–	3	79	17	100	29	5.1

Principals rated their own effectiveness on each criterion using a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").

1. "Percent Effective" = total of Slightly, Moderately and Highly Effective ratings.

Table 9.11

Comparison of Means of Perceptions of Edmonton Principals, Teachers and Area Superintendents of the Effectiveness of Principals

	Means of Effectiveness Ratings[1,2]			
	1	2	3	
Criterion	Principals (n=30)	School Means of Teachers[3] (n of schools=32)	Area Superintendents (n of schools=33)	sig. diff.[4]
1. Coordinating the development of school goals	5.1	–	4.7	–
2. Publicizing school goals	5.0	–	4.9	–
3. Promoting the achievement of school goals	5.1	–	–	
4. Exercising instructional leadership	5.1	–	4.6	–
5. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	5.4	–	–	
6. Improving the performance of staff	5.0	–	4.7	–
7. Evaluating staff members	5.0	–	4.8	–
8. Providing feedback to staff	5.2	–	4.9	–
9. Communicating with staff	5.3	–	–	
10. Encouraging high expectations of students	5.1	–	–	
11. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	5.3	–	5.0	–
12. Promoting high expectations among staff members	5.2	–	–	
13. Fostering high morale among staff and students	5.3	–	–	
14. Communicating with students	5.3	–	–	
15. Obtaining qualified staff	5.3	–	4.8	–
16. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	5.1	–	4.6	–
17. Allocating resources	5.2	–	5.0	–

Table 9.11 (continued)

Comparison of Means of Perceptions of Edmonton Principals, Teachers and Area Superintendents of the Effectiveness of Principals

Criterion	Means of Effectiveness Ratings 1 Principals (n=30)	2 School Means of Teachers (n of schools=32)	3 Area Superintendents (n of schools=33)	sig. diff.
18. Coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments	4.8	–	–	
19. Coping with uncertainty and conflict	5.0	–	–	
20. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	5.1	–	–	
21. Fostering the professional growth of staff members	5.2	–	–	
22. Exercising exemplary behaviour at school	5.4	–	–	
23. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff members	5.0	–	–	
24. Working with teachers to develop or change policies	5.0	–	–	
25. Identifying community expectations	4.9	–	–	
26. Adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations	4.9	–	–	
27. Communicating with community groups	4.9	–	–	
28. Enlisting the support of parents	5.0	–	4.8	–
29. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	4.1	–	4.3	–
30. Overall effectiveness as a leader	5.1	5.1	4.7	–

1. Means are based upon ratings on a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").
2. Means are based on maximum n's; n's for significance tests are sometimes smaller, because responses were paired by school for analysis.
3. Teachers were asked only for an overall rating of "Displaying leadership by the principal" in their

schools. This item was included in the school effectiveness instrument for teachers. The figure in this column is based upon *means* of ratings by respondent teachers in each of 32 Edmonton schools; total number of teachers in all schools=262.

4. Significance of inter-group differences was determined by *t*-test. * denotes statistical significance at the .05 level; ** denotes significance at the .01 level.

Table 9.12

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of Criteria for Judging the Effectiveness of Principals

Criterion	Importance (%f)				Percent[1]		
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme	Important	n	Mean
1. Coordinating the development of school goals	–	–	20	80	100	30	3.8
2. Publicizing school goals	–	–	50	50	100	30	3.5
3. Promoting the achievement of school goals	–	3	7	90	97	30	3.9
4. Exercising instructional leadership	–	–	23	77	100	30	3.8
5. Making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions	–	–	3	97	100	30	4.0
6. Improving the performance of staff	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
7. Evaluating staff members	–	–	33	67	100	30	3.7
8. Providing feedback to staff	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
9. Communicating with staff	–	–	–	100	100	30	4.0
10. Encouraging high expectations of students	–	–	7	93	100	30	3.9
11. Providing an appropriate work environment for students and staff	–	–	13	87	100	30	3.9
12. Promoting high expectations among staff members	–	–	17	83	100	30	3.8
13. Fostering high morale among staff and students	–	–	10	90	100	30	3.9
14. Communicating with students	–	–	13	87	100	30	3.9
15. Obtaining qualified staff	–	–	–	100	100	30	4.0
16. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff	–	–	13	87	100	30	3.9
17. Allocating resources	–	–	43	57	100	30	3.6
18. Coordinating and integrating the activities of staff groups/departments	–	3	50	47	97	30	3.4

Table 9.12 (continued)

Edmonton Principals' Perceptions of the Importance of
Criteria for Judging the Effectiveness of Principals

Criterion	Importance (%f)				Percent Important	n	Mean
	None	Slight	Moderate	Extreme			
19. Coping with uncertainty and conflict	–	–	17	83	100	30	3.8
20. Coping with emergencies and overloads of work	–	3	10	87	97	30	3.8
21. Fostering the professional growth of staff members	–	–	33	67	100	30	3.7
22. Exercising exemplary behaviour at school	–	–	20	80	100	30	3.8
23. Increasing the job satisfaction of staff members	–	3	17	79	97	29	3.8
24. Working with teachers to develop or change policies	–	–	27	73	100	30	3.7
25. Identifying community expectations	–	–	43	57	100	30	3.6
26. Adapting policies and procedures to respond to external changes and expectations	–	–	53	47	100	30	3.5
27. Communicating with community groups	–	7	37	57	93	30	3.5
28. Enlisting the support of parents	–	–	23	77	100	30	3.8
29. Enlisting the support of the non-parent community	–	31	52	17	69	29	2.9

Principals rated importance of each criterion using a four-point scale from 1 ("Not Important") to 4 ("Extremely Important").

1. "Percent Important" = total of Moderately and Extremely Important ratings.

Table 9.14

Comparison of Means of Effectiveness Ratings of Edmonton Public School District Schools in the Present Study with EPSD Survey Ratings on Comparable Criteria

	Means of Ratings					
	Present Study[1]			EPSD Survey (n=27)[4]		
Criterion	Principals (n=24)	Teachers (n=26)[2]	Area Supts. (n=26)[3]	Teachers[5]	Students[6]	Parents[7]
SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS						
Communicating School Goals						
1. Communicating school goals to students (Stf: Do you feel that sufficient information is provided to the students about: (a) what they are expected to learn? (b) how they are expected to behave?) (Stu (4-6): Do you receive information in the school about: (a) what you are expected to learn? (b) how you are expected to behave?) (Pts: Are you satisfied with the type of information provided by the school about: (a) what your child is expected to learn? (b) how your child is expected to behave?)	4.9	4.9	4.9	(5.0 (a) (5.2 (b)	5.1 (a) 5.6 (b)	5.3 (a) 5.7 (b)
Expecting and Encouraging Student Success						
2. Maintaining high expectations of students	5.0	5.0	5.0	((5.1	–	5.2
3. Encouraging academic success (Stf: Do you feel that the school is providing sufficient challenging opportunities for students to experience success in the school programs?) (Pts: Do you feel that your child is sufficiently challenged by the school to foster maximum learning and development?)	5.1	5.1	–	(		

Table 9.14 (continued)

Comparison of Means of Effectiveness Ratings of Edmonton Public School District Schools in the Present Study with EPSD Survey Ratings on Comparable Criteria

	Means of Ratings					
	Present Study			EPSD Survey (n=27)		
Criterion	Principals (n=24)	Teachers (n=26)	Area Supts. (n=26)	Teachers	Students	Parents
Student Learning						
4. Maximizing achievement in reading and writing	5.3	5.2	4.7	–	5.7	–
5. Maximizing achievement in mathematics (Stu (K-3): Are you learning a lot?) (Stu (4-6): Do you feel good about how much you are learning?)	5.2	5.1				
Extra-Curricular Activities						
6. Providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities (Pts: Are you satisfied with the extracurricular programs at the school (sports, school plays, concerts, clubs, etc.)?)	5.2	4.7	4.7	–	–	5.6
Student Satisfaction						
7. Maximizing student satisfaction and morale (Stu: Do you like being in school?) (Pts: Do you feel your child likes school?)	5.1	5.0	4.6	–	5.1	5.7
Enforcement of Rules						
8. Enforcing behavioral rules among students (Stu: Are you and the other children in the school made to follow the rules?) (Pts: Do you feel student discipline is being handled well at the school?)	5.4	4.9	–	–	5.7	5.4
Acknowledgement of Staff and Students						
9. Acknowledging the achievements of staff and students (Stf: Do you feel that you get adequate recognition and appreciation for your performance and accomplishments within the district?)	5.2	5.0	–	4.7	–	–

Table 9.14 (continued)

Comparison of Means of Effectiveness Ratings of Edmonton Public School District Schools in the Present Study with EPSD Survey Ratings on Comparable Criteria

	Means of Ratings					
	Present Study			EPSD Survey (n=27)		
Criterion	Principals (n=24)	Teachers (n=26)	Area Supts. (n=26)	Teachers	Students	Parents
Staff Job Satisfaction						
10. Maximizing the job satisfaction of individual staff members (Stf: Do you feel that your school is a good place to work?)	5.2	4.7	4.8	5.3	–	–
Evaluation of Teachers						
11. Constructively evaluating the work of teachers (Stf: Are you satisfied with the staff performance evaluation process in your school?)	5.1	4.8	–	5.1	–	–
Communicating with the Community						
12. Maintaining communication with the community (Stf: Do you feel that sufficient information is provided to parents about (a) what their children are expected to learn? (b) How their children are expected to behave?) (Pts: Do you feel that you are being adequately informed about (a) your child's learning progress? (b) the school's programs and accomplishments? (c) the District's programs and accomplishments?)	5.5	5.2	–	(4.9 (a) (5.0 (b)	–	(5.5 (a) (5.7 (b) (4.4 (c)

Table 9.14 (continued)

Comparison of Means of Effectiveness Ratings of Edmonton Public School District Schools in the Present Study with EPSD Survey Ratings on Comparable Criteria

	Means of Ratings					
	Present Study			EPSD Survey (n=27)		
Criterion	Principals (n=24)	Teachers (n=26)	Area Supts. (n=26)	Teachers	Students	Parents
Community Support and Involvement						
13. Obtaining support from the community (Stf: Are you satisfied with (a) the parental involvement in educational activities and programs at your school? (b) the involvement of the non-parent community in educational activities and programs at your school?) (Pts: Are you satisfied with your involvement in (a) activities or programs at your child's school? (b) the budget planning process at your child's school?)	5.3	5.0	4.9	(4.6 (a) (4.2 (b)	- -	5.5 (a) 4.8 (b)
Satisfaction of Parents						
14. Maximizing the satisfaction of parents (Pts: Generally, are you satisfied with your child's school?)	5.4	5.1	4.8	–	–	5.8

Table 9.14 (continued)

Comparison of Means of Effectiveness Ratings of Edmonton Public School District Schools in the Present Study with EPSD Survey Ratings on Comparable Criteria

	Means of Ratings					
	Present Study			EPSD Survey (n=27)		
Criterion	Principals (n=24)	Teachers (n=26)	Area Supts. (n=26)	Teachers	Students	Parents
EFFECTIVENESS OF PRINCIPALS						
Allocation of Work to Staff						
15. Allocating tasks appropriately among staff (Stf: Do you feel that the workload in the school is distributed equitably and fairly among staff?)	5.2	–	4.7	4.7	–	–
Facilitating Staff Development						
16. Fostering the professional growth of staff members (Stf: Do you feel that you have adequate opportunities for professional development?)	5.3	–	–	5.0	–	–
Staff Decision-Making Participation						
17. Working with teachers to develop or change policies (Stf: Do you feel that you as an individual have adequate influence over school level decisions that affect you and your job?)	5.2	–	–	5.0	–	–

Table 9.14 (continued)

Comparison of Means of Effectiveness Ratings of Edmonton Public School District Schools in the Present Study with EPSD Survey Ratings on Comparable Criteria

	Means of Ratings					
	Present Study			EPSD Survey (n=27)		
Criterion	Principals (n=24)	Teachers (n=26)	Area Supts. (n=26)	Teachers	Students	Parents
Overall Effectiveness						
18. Overall effectiveness as a leader (Trs: Do you respect and have confidence in your principal?) (Stu: Do you like your principal?) (Pts: In general, are you satisfied with the school principal?)	5.2	5.2	4.8	5.5	5.7	5.8

1. Means for the present study are based upon ratings on a six-point scale from 1 ("Highly Ineffective") to 6 ("Highly Effective").
2. Based upon means of ratings by respondent teachers in each of 26 EPSD schools; total number of teachers=213.
3. Nine EPSD area superintendents rated a total of 26 schools and principals.
4. Based on school means of EPSD survey ratings; only the EPSD schools in the present sample are taken into account.
5. In the EPSD survey, teachers rated each item on a four-point scale ranging from "Very Much," through "Fairly Much" and "Not Very Much" to "Virtually Not At All"; for the purpose of comparison, the order of these ratings has been reversed, and they have been assigned scores on a six-point scale.
6. Students rated each item "Yes" (assigned 2) or "No" (assigned 1). These responses were redistributed on a six-point scale, and uncommitted responses (i.e., "I'm Not Sure") were excluded.
7. Parents also rated each item "Yes" (assigned 2) or "No" (assigned 1). Uncommitted responses ("Undecided" and "Insufficient Information") were disregarded.

Items shown in brackets are the equivalent items from EPSD instruments; "Trs"=certificated teachers, "Stu"=students, "Pts"=parents of students.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Principals' Perceptions of Their
Overall Job Satisfaction and Satisfaction with Individual Facets
(n = 112)

Variable No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
r	.313	.358	.311	.222	.303	.393	.147	.371	.321	.287
p	.001	.001	.001	.019	.001	.001	.122	.001	.001	.002
Variable No.	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
r	.435	.355	.378	.389	.400	.168	.165	.159	.236	.355
p	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.078	.084	.096	.012	.001
Variable No.	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
r	.398	.263	.437	.337	.307	.417	.354	.123	.297	.228
p	.001	.005	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.201	.001	.016
Variable No.	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
r	.390	.312	.377	.232	.471	.345	.527	.421	.537	.435
p	.001	.001	.001	.014	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Variable No.	41									
r	.334									
p	.001									

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Principals' Perceptions of The Overall Effectiveness of Schools and Effectiveness on Individual Criteria
(n = 110)

Variable No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
r	.273	.254	.407	-.052	.210	.300	.150	.212	.230	.311
p	.004	.007	.001	.593	.028	.002	.119	.026	.016	.001
Variable No.	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
r	.246	.149	.366	.184	.322	.550	.360	.302	.399	.108
p	.010	.122	.001	.056	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.265
Variable No.	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
r	.524	.412	.315	.345	.344	.325	.447	.280	.258	.176
p	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.003	.007	.066
Variable No.	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38		
r	.325	.166	.254	.252	.241	.277	.489	.371		
p	.001	.084	.007	.008	.011	.003	.001	.001		

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Principals' Perceptions of Their Overall Effectiveness and Effectiveness on Individual Criteria
(n = 109)

Variable No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
r	.364	.350	.446	.480	.506	.343	.399	.361	.496	.415
p	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Variable No.	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
r	.326	.457	.450	.322	.338	.484	.402	.441	.446	.439
p	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Variable No.	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	
r	.301	.336	.367	.283	.467	.336	.373	.391	.308	
p	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	